

HISTORY of CANADA

GAMMELL

BRITISH COLUMBIA EDITION

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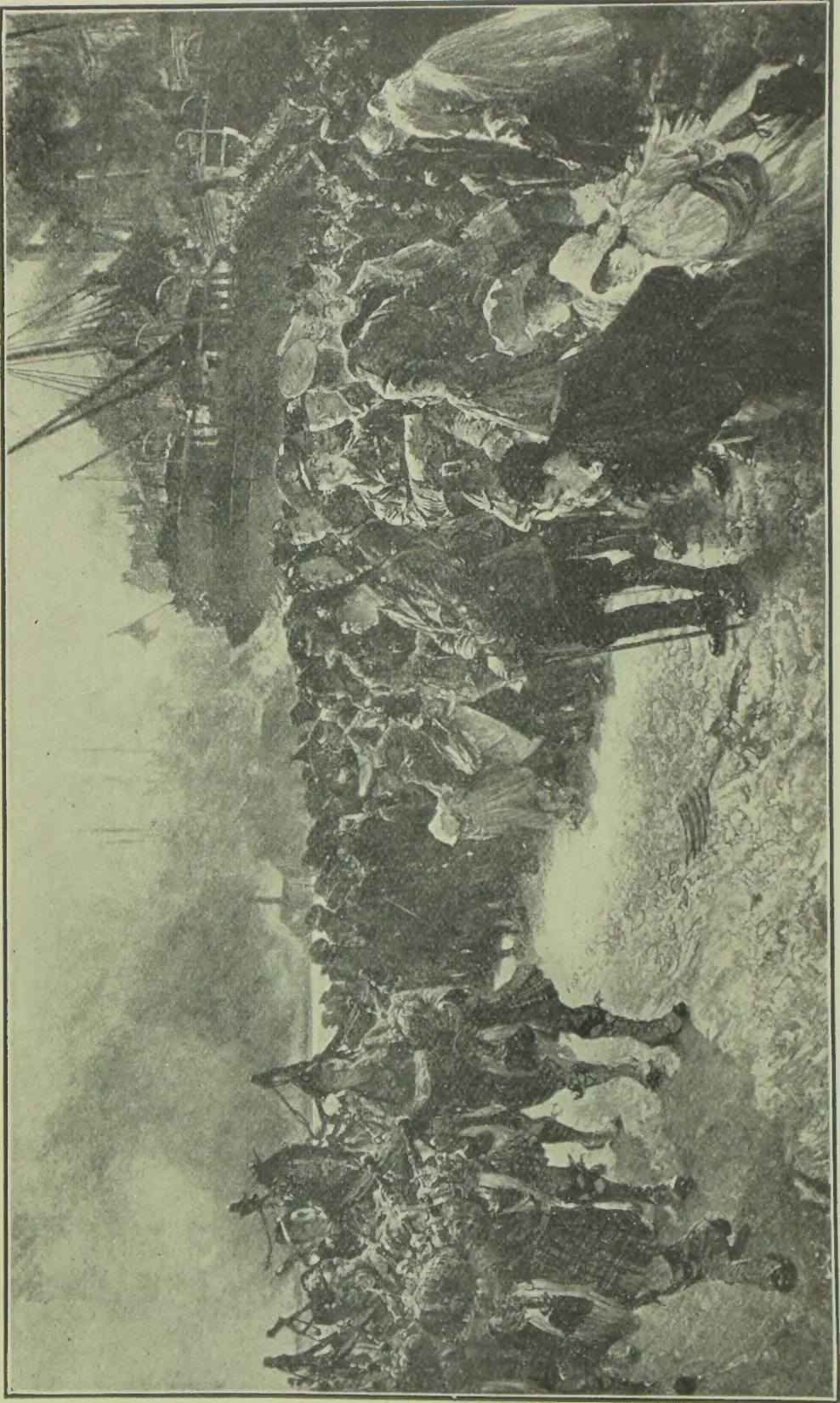
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THE LANDING OF THE FIRST CANADIAN DIVISION AT ST. NAZAIRE, 1915

From the Painting by Edgar Bundy, A. R. A.

GAGE'S NEW HISTORICAL SERIES

HISTORY OF CANADA

BY

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HISTORY OF CANADA

CHAPTER I

GENERAL SUMMARY

Discovery and Exploration.—The story of Canada covers a period of four centuries. Its beginning takes us back to a time when our country was a forest wilderness inhabited only by a few wandering tribes of red men, when our forefathers lived in Europe and knew nothing of a continent beyond the Western Ocean. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries various peoples of Europe living beside that ocean made their way across it, and discovered and occupied the “New World” of America. The story of Canada is concerned with two of these peoples, first with the French and then with the English. Sailing under the French flag, Verrazano and Cartier explored the North Atlantic coast and the shores of the Gulf and the River St. Lawrence. In consequence of these voyages the French took possession of the surrounding regions of Acadia and Canada, which thus came to be called New France.

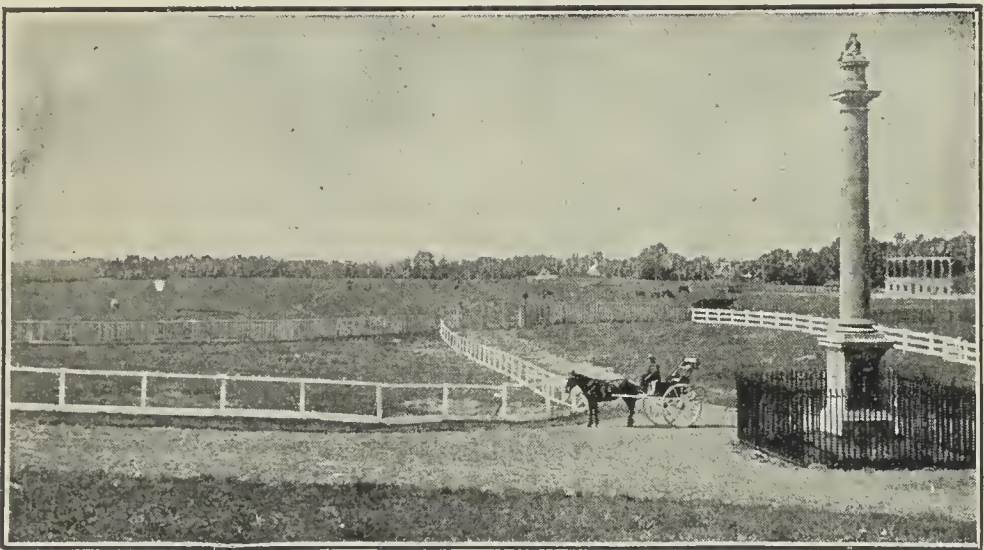
The Rule of the Fur Companies.—At first this vast territory was placed under the control of companies, which were under obligation to establish colonies and were granted the sole right to trade in furs. In 1605 De Monts, the head of the first company, founded Port Royal in Acadia, and Champlain, his representative,

founded Quebec in Canada three years later. In spite of the noble efforts of Champlain, for many years governor of Canada, the French colonies did not prosper under the rule of the fur-traders. Missionaries were very active in their efforts to Christianize the natives, but the merchants would not spend the money necessary for the settlement of the country and for its protection from the attacks of its cruel enemies, the Iroquois Indians. The king of France, therefore, cancelled the charter of the Hundred Associates, as the last fur-company was called, and in 1663 established royal government in Canada.

Growth under Royal Government.—Under the energetic rule of the king and his officials, thousands of colonists were settled in Canada. The fierce Iroquois were compelled to sue for peace. Adventurous Frenchmen traced the river courses of the great plains of the interior. Traders ranged far and wide, exchanging trinkets, knives, hatchets, and guns for the rich furs of the Indians. Missionaries visited the various tribes, teaching them Christianity and gaining their confidence and friendship. Military and trading posts were established in the region of the Great Lakes, along the Mississippi, and even in the far North-West. Very few French settlers, however, were to be found west of the Ottawa River.

The Struggle of French and English for Supremacy.—Meanwhile, the English had occupied the coast region of what is now the United States. They spread westward to the Appalachian mountains and northward towards Canada and Acadia. Thus they came into conflict with the French and their allies, the Indians. They were much alarmed at the advance of the former into the valleys of the Mississippi and the Ohio, since it would shut themselves out from the rich lands of the

West which they claimed as their own. France and Britain were keen rivals in the race for colonial supremacy. The latter had already secured possession of the fur region of Hudson Bay, long in dispute. Each nation now supported her colonists in the new quarrel, for the possession of half of North America was at stake. Nothing but war could settle the dispute. In the great struggle, beginning in 1756 and known as the Seven Years' War, France was vanquished. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763 she gave up the greater part of her North American possessions. Thus Canada, after a century and a half of French occupation, became a British possession.



THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM
WHERE CANADA WAS LOST TO FRANCE

The Laying of New Foundations.—This change of ownership brought with it changes in laws and methods of government. Some confusion followed, and for a time discontent existed among the French inhabitants. Then came the rebellion of the older British colonies and the unsuccessful invasion of Canada by their forces in 1775. They were, however, able to win their indepen-

dence, becoming the United States. Numbers of the people who had remained loyal to Britain sought new homes in Canada, where they formed a valuable addition to the population. These new settlers—the United Empire Loyalists—soon demanded and obtained for the people of Canada a larger share in the government of the country than they had hitherto enjoyed, either before or since the British conquest. Peace and political progress were soon interrupted by war and fresh invasions from the United States in 1812-14. In defence of their country, English-speaking Canadians and French-speaking Canadians fought side by side bravely and successfully. Their common danger and their common efforts did something to unite the two races and to strengthen their patriotism. The changes of this period since the conquest, with its dangers and trials, had an immense influence on Canadian history and may be described as the laying of new foundations for the Canadian nation.

The Struggle for Self-government.—After the close of the war with the United States, desire for a freer form of government revived. Public affairs were still largely in the hands of officials appointed by the British government and responsible to it alone. Public business was not managed as the people wished. The population was rapidly increasing in numbers, wealth, and intelligence, and a large party now claimed that the Canadian people themselves should control such local affairs as concerned themselves alone. The official party long opposed this demand and were for a time supported by the British government. Discontent grew. The more reckless of the Reform leaders stirred up a rebellion in 1837. It **was** easily crushed. When the British government saw how determined the Canadian people were to secure

local self-government, it wisely granted their demands. The two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, separated fifty years before, were re-united at the same time (1841). The great North-West was still an almost unoccupied wilderness. A few immigrants, mainly from Scotland, had reached the banks of the Red River. Here and there might be found posts, where the agents of the Hudson's Bay Company purchased the furs and buffalo hides from the Indians. Before the end of the eighteenth century enterprising explorers had found their way overland to the Arctic and the Pacific. The shores of the latter had been traced by navigators from Great Britain, who claimed, in consequence, the region as her own.

Steps towards Confederation.—The struggle for self-government was common to all the provinces of British America and brought their people more in touch with each other. Improved communication by post, railway, and steamship had the same effect. A desire for union sprang up. Upper Canada and Lower Canada did not agree very well together and thought that their difficulties might be removed by a larger union, in which each province might have a local government of its own. The need of combination against a possible attack from the United States hastened the movement, and, in 1867, Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia united to form the Dominion of Canada.

National Development.—The progress of Canada since Confederation has been remarkable. Her bounds have been extended westward over the fertile prairie plains and the giant mountain ranges to the Pacific Ocean. These vacant spaces have been occupied by a growing and prosperous population. Her wealth and commerce have increased by leaps and bounds. Great railways have been built, which have welded her scattered prov-

inces more closely together. The people of these provinces have learned to regard themselves as one people and to work together for the welfare of their common country. This vigorous growth of a united and self-governing Dominion has reached forward to the condition of Nationhood. In her relations with foreign countries Canada has become less and less dependent upon the motherland. As a free nation she gladly took her place beside Britain in the great struggle with Germany on behalf of liberty and justice in Europe. As an independent member she signed the Treaty of Peace and was enrolled in the League of Nations. On the other hand Canadians remain passionately loyal to the Crown, the symbol of union with the motherland and the sister Dominions of the British Empire.

CHAPTER II

AMERICA DISCOVERED AND EXPLORED

America Unknown to Europeans.—Canadian history begins with the discovery of America by Europeans at the end of the fifteenth century. It is true that sea-rovers from Norway had visited the north-eastern shores of the continent much earlier than this (A.D. 1000), but they made no permanent settlements, and their voyages soon ceased.

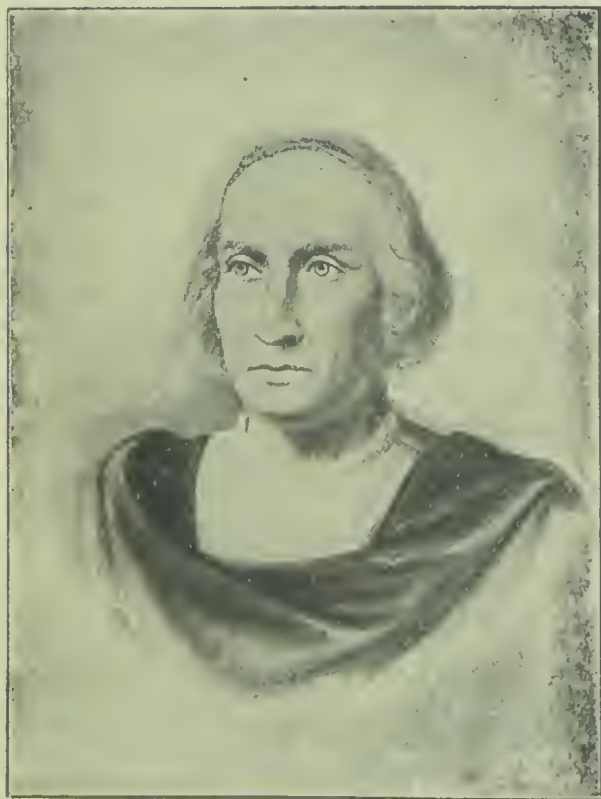
No knowledge of these discoveries spread to the other countries of Europe, for there were few books and no newspapers in those days, and people seldom travelled, even into lands near by. The world known to the civilized people of the Middle Ages, as these times are called, consisted of Europe, Northern Africa, and the south-western parts of Asia.

Learning and Commerce.—In the fifteenth century wonderful changes began to take place in Europe. The invention of printing had greatly reduced the cost of books and had multiplied the number of those who bought and studied them. Men were eager to learn of the wonderful doings and the wise sayings of the Greeks and Romans of old. Not less eagerly did they turn to the world around them. They wished to travel and to see it for themselves. Commerce steadily grew, as men began to appreciate the products of other lands.

The first of the countries to feel the new spirit was Italy. Her scholars and artists were the greatest of

the time. No merchants were so rich as those of Genoa and Venice. Fleets from these ports had long sailed to Syria to obtain the gold, the ivory, the spices, and the rich cloths brought by caravan from India. But this route over the deserts of Persia and Arabia, always expensive and dangerous, was now almost closed by the fierce and barbarous Turks, who had lately conquered the countries bordering the eastern Mediterranean.

The Sea Route to India.—The desire to resume this trade prompted men to seek a new way to India. The common belief of the time was that the earth was a flat



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

plain surrounded by the ocean. The mariner's compass, recently invented, now enabled the sailor to make his way more surely across the ocean. The Portuguese were the first to send out explorers in the hope of finding a sea-passage to India around the south of Africa.

Some geographers, however, thought that the world was not a flat plain, but a round ball. It was possible, therefore, that India might lie just beyond the Western Ocean. The first man who had the skill and the courage to test this theory was Christopher Columbus.

Columbus.—This famous man was an Italian, a native

of Genoa. Having studied much and travelled far, he had become convinced that the eastern parts of Asia could be reached by sailing westward across the Atlantic. It proved a difficult matter to convince others of this. At last, however, after years of patient effort and many disappointments, he managed to persuade the king and queen of Spain to equip three small vessels with which to make the attempt.

With these vessels Columbus set out in the summer of 1492 on his famous voyage. For two months he kept on his way to the west, in spite of the murmurs of his men, who feared that they would never be able to return. At last, on October 12th, to the great joy of all, land was discovered. As soon as they touched the shore, Columbus and his men fell on their knees and thanked God for the success of their venture. The island was one of the group now called the Bahamas. Continuing on his way, Columbus discovered the islands of Cuba and Haiti, and took possession of them for Spain. Thinking that he had indeed reached India, he called these islands the Indies and the natives Indians. When the mistake was discovered, the name was not changed, but the islands were called West Indies. The honours showered upon Columbus on his triumphant return were in striking contrast with the neglect and opposition he had formerly suffered.

Spanish Exploration.—The discoveries of Columbus aroused great interest, and many Spaniards were eager to search in the "New World" for the precious metals which the natives had reported to be abundant. Columbus himself made three more voyages and explored the shores of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico. In their search for gold and silver the Spaniards were very successful in the mountain regions. They took

possession of western America from Patagonia to California. Here the Spanish race and the Spanish language still survive.

English Exploration.—Other powers of Western Europe were eager to join in the search for wealth. Already



JOHN CABOT AND HIS SON, SEBASTIAN

Henry VII of England had sent out John Cabot, a Venetian mariner who had settled in Bristol, to find a route to China and India, and to take possession for England of all lands discovered. Accompanied by his son Sebastian, he sailed from Bristol in May, 1497, with one small vessel and thirty men, and first sighted the "new lands" at some point on

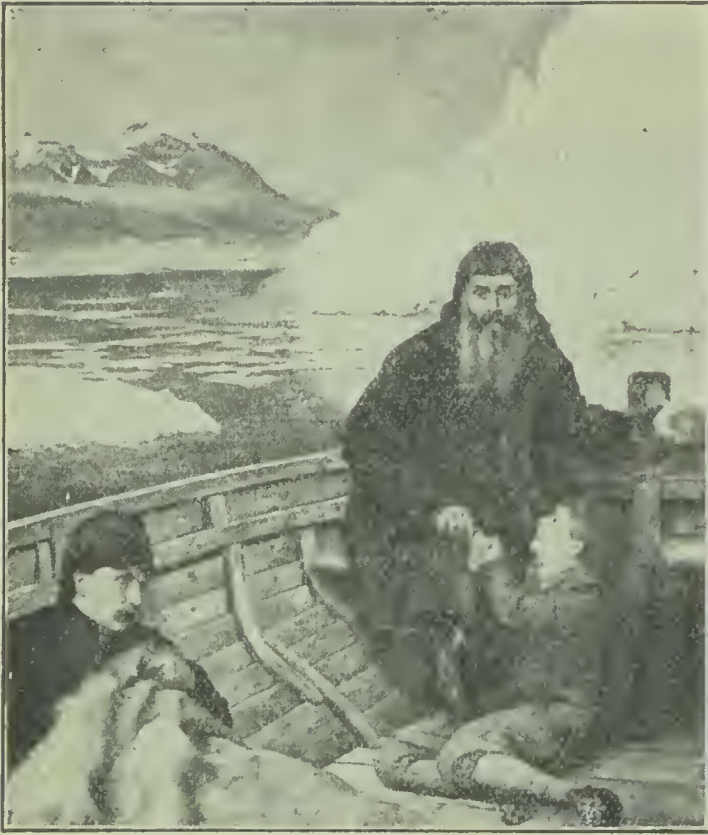
the shores of Newfoundland or Cape Breton. Then he followed the coast of the continent southward to Florida. Another expedition appears to have been sent out in the following year. There is much uncertainty as to the

details of both voyages, no record having been published at the time. There is, however, to be found in Henry's cash accounts the following entry:—"To him who found the new lands, £10."

The importance of these voyages lies in the fact that the Cabots were the first to reach the mainland of America, and that their discoveries were afterwards made the basis of England's claim to the eastern coast of North America. It was to be expected that in the reign of Queen Elizabeth the dauntless English seamen of those days would interest themselves in the short route to the wonders of the East. Convinced that there must be to the north of the new continent a channel which would lead directly to China and India, they made many attempts to discover this passage—the famous "North-West Passage," as it was afterwards called. Although each made three voyages to the Arctic regions in the endeavour to sail from the Atlantic to the Pacific by way of the north, Martin Frobisher and John Davis, two of the most daring of the English navigators, met with no success in their attempts.

In 1610 Henry Hudson set sail from the shores of England on a voyage, which, while it was unsuccessful in discovering the North-West Passage, proved to be of vast importance in the history of Canada, as it was upon his discoveries that England later laid claim to the entire inland regions of the north. In his small vessel of only fifty-five tons, the *Discovery*, he made his way through the strait and into the great bay which now bears his name. But a prolonged search failed to find any opening to the west. Fearing that their leader would keep them another winter in so inhospitable a clime, his men mutinied, cast Hudson, his son, and a few sick seamen adrift in an open boat, and sailed for home. The un-

fortunate navigator was never heard of more. Several expeditions were sent out to search for him, but no



THE LAST DAYS OF HENRY HUDSON

traces of him or of his men were ever found.

French Exploration. —

France at first took no part in the new enterprises, but she was now eager to grasp a share of the wealth which she saw enriching her rival, Spain. The search was entrusted by the French king to Giovanni Verrazano, an

Italian navigator living in France. In 1524 he sailed along the coast of the United States and Nova Scotia, and called the whole region New France. But like the Cabots, who had preceded him there, he found neither precious metals nor a passage to Asia.

In the meantime the marvellous abundance of codfish in the waters of Newfoundland, as reported by Cabot, had been attracting the fishermen of Europe. Every year hundreds of vessels from France and other countries resorted thither to gather the riches of the sea. Through these voyages more definite knowledge of the neighbouring shores was gained, and it was now known that a

great arm of the sea (the Gulf of St. Lawrence) stretched far to the west. Here might be the wished-for passage to Asia, and to explore it the French king prepared another expedition. The command was given to a well-known captain of St. Malo named Jacques Cartier. To his discovery and exploration of Canada a new chapter must be devoted.

CHAPTER III

CANADA EXPLORED BY CARTIER

Cartier's First Voyage.—Cartier sailed from St. Malo in April, 1534. Entering the gulf, afterwards named St. Lawrence, he sailed south and west until he reached



JACQUES CARTIER

its western shore. He then turned northward, searching everywhere for an opening. In one large bay reaching far inland, he found the July heat so intense that he named it Bay Chaleur. A little farther on, he landed at Gaspé. There he set up a cross, with the arms of France affixed, to show that the country thenceforth belonged to King Francis and to the Christian Church. This was the first formal occupation

of any part of the New World by the French.

Proceeding on his way, Cartier entered the broad mouth of the St. Lawrence. Fearing the approach of autumn storms, however, he left its exploration for another year and turned his course homeward.

Second Voyage, 1535.—In May of the next year Cartier again set forth. Passing the Straits of Belle Isle, he sailed westward along the Labrador coast. On the 10th of August he entered a small inlet north of Anticosti, which, in honour of the day, was called St. Lawrence, a name afterwards extended to the river and gulf. The gradual narrowing of the channel and the growing freshness of the water convinced Cartier that he was entering no passage to Asia, but the mouth of a mighty river. He had with him as guides two young Indians whom he had seized the previous year at Gaspé, but whose home lay farther up the river. When questioned about the names of places passed, they often used in reply the word "Canada," the term in their language for village. Cartier thought the country itself was so named and used the word with that meaning in his account of his discoveries. Thus originated the name of our broad Dominion.

Cartier at Stadacona.—Soon the voyagers sailed into a beautiful basin, now the harbour of Quebec. Facing them was a towering rock which there narrows the river to half its usual breadth, and at its foot lay the Indian village of Stadacona. Its chief, Donnacona, and his dusky followers welcomed the French with joyous clamour. They swarmed around the vessels in their canoes, bringing offerings of fish and maize, and were charmed with the beads and trinkets given in return. They put their village at the disposal of their white visitors, whose vessels, clothing, and arms aroused boundless wonder.

They told Cartier that the principal town of the country was Hochelaga, a long distance up the river. When he expressed a wish to visit it, they tried to prevent him by enlarging on the difficulties and dangers of the journey. Perhaps they thought that fewer of the

wonderful gifts of the visitors would come to themselves, if the supply were shared with their countrymen above. Cartier, however, was not to be dissuaded. With his smallest vessel and fifty men he proceeded up the St. Lawrence and reached his destination in a fortnight.



CARTIER'S ARRIVAL AT STADACONA

Hochelaga.—The Indian town was at a little distance from the river, and thither the French were escorted by a great throng of leaping and shouting natives. It lay in the midst of fields of maize, then yellowed by autumn frosts. Cartier counted more than fifty houses, each sheltering many families. It was surrounded by a wooden wall, made of triple rows of stakes driven into the ground and bound together at the top. Cartier and his men were received as gods from heaven by the townsmen, who brought forth their sick to receive the healing touch of the visitors. For two hours Cartier read to them the story of our Saviour. They listened with respectful attention, although they understood not a word of what he was reading.

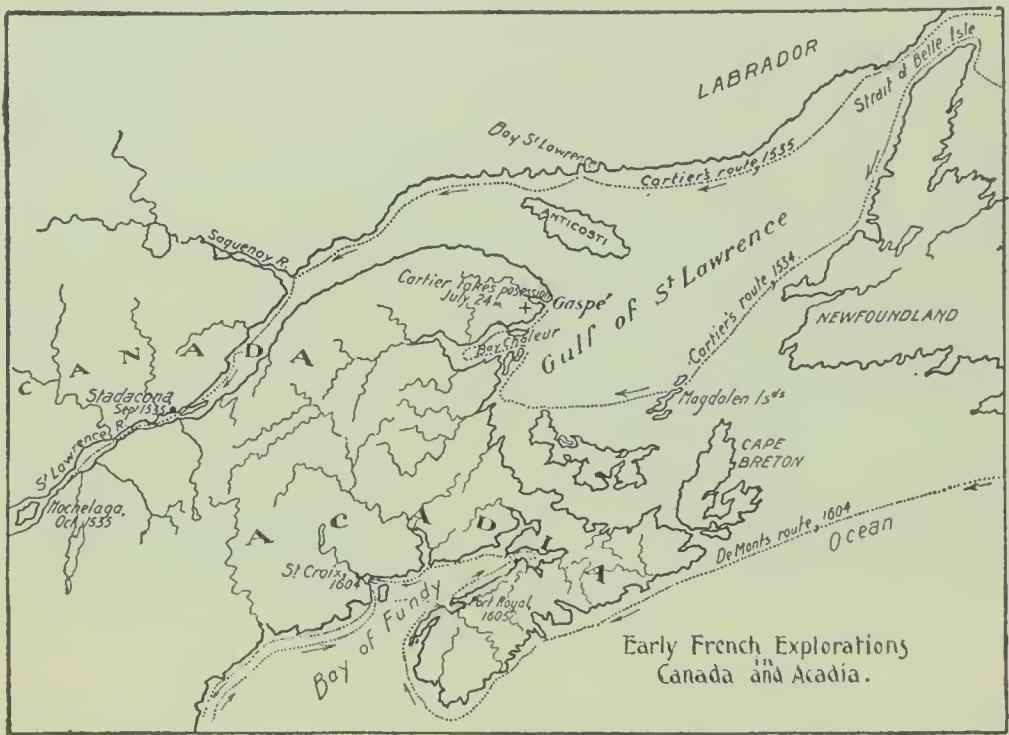
Before returning, Cartier climbed the ridge that overhung the town. So wide and so beautiful was the view of the surrounding country from its crest, that the admiring Frenchman called it "Royal Mountain." From this term is derived the name of the great city which now lies at its foot—Montreal.



CARTIER AT HOCHELAGA

Winter at Stadacona.—In a short time Cartier was again at Stadacona and preparing for the coming winter. His ships were drawn up near the shore, and a wooden fort mounted with cannon was built as a protection against a possible attack from the Indians. His fears proved groundless, but his men suffered severely from the unaccustomed cold. They were attacked by the dreadful disease of scurvy, which carried off many of their number until a cure was found in a medicine made from the leaves and twigs of the spruce tree. Never were people more glad to welcome the spring.

As soon as the river was clear of ice, Cartier prepared for his return. The expedition had not been successful in discovering the expected mines of gold and silver, but Donnacona insisted that these precious metals were to be found in abundance in the land of Saguenay. His assertion cost him dear, for Cartier, when leaving, seized him and carried him off that he might repeat his wonderful tales at the French court.



The First Colony.—By right of the discoveries of Verrazano and of Cartier, France now claimed the northern half of North America. In 1541 the king sent a colony to occupy his realm of New France. The Sieur de Roberval, a French nobleman, was named viceroy, and Cartier was made “captain-general” of the expedition. “We have resolved,” says the French king, “to send him again to the lands of Canada and Hochelaga, which form the extremity of Asia towards the

west." With five ships Cartier sailed in advance of the main party and made a settlement at Cap Rouge, a few miles above Stadacona. So terrible were the sufferings of the colonists during the winter from cold, hunger, and disease that they sailed for France in the spring, without waiting for Roberval. They met him at Newfoundland, which he had just reached with three ships and about two hundred colonists. Cartier, however, refusing to obey the command of his superior officer to return to Canada, continued on his way.

Roberval re-occupied Cartier's settlement. Faring no better than the latter, he, too, abandoned so inhospitable a land. Thus closed in disappointment and disaster the first effort of French colonization in America. No other attempt was made for many years. French fishermen, however, still thronged the coast, and traders reaped rich profits by exchanging knives, hatchets, beads, and trinkets of all kinds for the valuable furs brought to them by the Indians.

The Indians—The Indians with whom Cartier and later French and English explorers came into contact were a tall, spare race of men, with strong features and copper-coloured skin. Their hair was coarse, straight, and black. In warm weather they went almost naked, but in winter they clad themselves in furs and skins.



ALGONQUIN INDIANS

From the group in front of the Legislative Buildings,
Quebec

Although a general resemblance could be traced throughout the race, they were divided into several great families, each of which had well-marked peculiarities of its own. The Algonquin family extended from the Atlantic to Lake Superior and the upper Mississippi.



AN IROQUOIS WARRIOR
From the Maisonneuve Monument, Montreal

They lived mainly by hunting and fishing, and roamed in small bands from place to place in search of game. Their cone-shaped houses, called wigwams, were easily and quickly made by driving slight poles into the ground in a circle and binding them together at the top. This framework was then covered by skins or by sheets of bark. These scattered bands were loosely joined together into tribes. Those living in Nova Scotia were called Micmacs; those in Maine and south-east-

ern Quebec, Abenakis. Along the Saguenay were to be found the Montagnais (mountaineers), and on the northern shores of Lakes Superior and Huron, the Ottawas and Ojibways.

Taller in stature, finer in features, and lighter in colour than the Algonquins were the Huron-Iroquois, so called from the two most important tribes. The Hurons lived

south of Georgian Bay, and the Iroquois south of Lake Ontario. These Indians tilled the soil in a rude fashion and raised crops of maize, pumpkins, beans, and tobacco. They had permanent homes, living in large villages defended by stockades similar to the Hochelaga visited by Jacques Cartier. Their houses were usually large enough to hold ten or a dozen families.

Of all these various tribes, the Iroquois were by far the most powerful and successful in war. They owed their



INDIANS OF THE PLAINS

superiority not only to their greater resolution, fierceness, and daring, but also to their better organization. They were, in fact, a confederation of five tribes,—Mohawks, Cayugas, Senecas, Oneidas, and Onandagas—and were often called “The Five Nations.” After the admission of the Tuscaroras, the confederacy became known as “The Six Nations.” They alone among Indians had learned how much stronger they could become by uniting their forces for a common purpose, than by wasting their efforts in petty quarrels among themselves.

Over the western prairies were to be found scattered tribes of the Cree family. The Blackfeet had their hunting-grounds along the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains. South of the Crees were the Assiniboinés, a branch of the great Sioux family of the United States.



A PACIFIC COAST INDIAN

The two former groups resembled the Algonquins, while the latter seemed akin to the Huron-Iroquois. The Chipewyans, or Tinné as they called themselves, were a friendly, peaceable people who roamed over the country northward from the Cree territory. Scattered along the shores of the Arctic Ocean, from whose icy waters they obtained their only supply of food, were the Eskimos. These as well as the Indians of

the Pacific coast closely resemble in features the natives of the opposite shores of Asia.

Living in the open, the Indian was a keen observer of things around him. He knew the habits of beast and bird. He could unerringly make his way through the forest and over the plains by signs which the white man would never notice. A hunter, he became cunning, swift of foot, patient to endure hunger and fatigue. In war he was cruel and revengeful; and the greatest pleasure of women and children, as well as of warriors, was to inflict the most dreadful tortures on prisoners brought back for that purpose by the war-parties. At home the men spent much of their time in gambling, smoking,

and feasting. They thought all labour beneath them and fit only for squaws, as the women were called. Before the coming of Europeans, the Indians knew nothing of the use of iron. Their weapons and tools were made of stone.

The Indians had no idea of a Supreme God who created and loved mankind. They believed, however, in spirits, or Manitous as they called them, who haunted the mountains, streams, and lakes, and who were powerful to hurt or to help. Sorcerers, or "medicine-men," who pretended to win the favour of these spirits by their magic, had great authority among all the tribes. Perhaps the greatest influence on the life of the red man was that of the dream; its supposed teachings he never failed to obey. The religion of the Indian moved him not through love but only through fear or selfishness, and had no power to make him lead a kinder and a nobler life.

CHAPTER IV

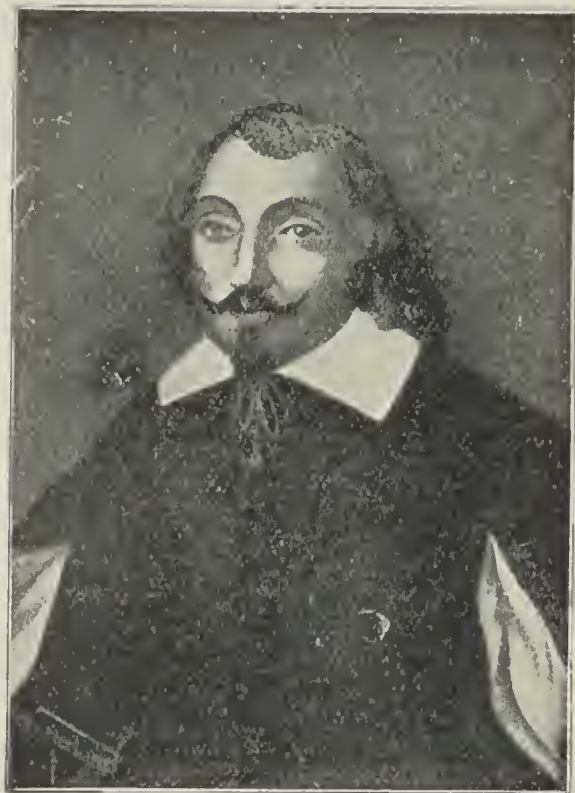
CHAMPLAIN

Renewed Interest in New France.—For many years the French had been occupied with religious disputes and civil wars, and their rulers paid little attention to the New World. When peace was finally restored, trade revived, and men of adventurous mind turned their thoughts to the New France of the West. If these regions presented no rich stores of precious metals, they offered the wealth of their fur-trade. King Henry wished to establish his control over them by the settlement of colonies. What was more natural than to combine the two aims and make the profits of the fur-trade pay the cost of the colonies? For more than half a century the colonization and government of Canada were in the hands of companies, who were given by the king the sole right to trade in furs. The rights granted to the companies were protected by the full strength of the law.

De Monts Founds Port Royal, 1605.—In 1604 a nobleman named De Monts was given a charter to colonize Acadia, a region described as extending along the Atlantic from the Delaware River to the St. Lawrence. With him were Baron de Poutrincourt, Pontgravé, a merchant already engaged in the fur-trade, and Samuel de Champlain, of whom we shall hear more.

Well supplied with all things needful by the generous De Monts, the party sailed for Acadia in the spring of 1604. Entering the Bay of Fundy, they discovered on its southern shore a land-locked basin, which so charmed

them with its beauty that they called it Port Royal. They spent their first winter, however, on the island of St. Croix in Passamaquoddy Bay. Only half of the company survived its hardships, and in the spring the rest, joined by recruits from France, gladly returned to Port Royal. Comfortable buildings were erected, and the second winter was passed much more pleasantly than the first. The Indians proved friendly. The colony was beginning to prosper, when French merchants, jealous of De Monts' monopoly of the fur-trade, persuaded the king to recall his charter. The settlement colony was, therefore, regretfully abandoned in 1607.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN
The Father of New France

Champlain. — De Monts, however, managed to secure a renewal of his charter for a year, on condition that he should found a new colony on the St. Lawrence. He did not care to make another voyage himself and chose as leader of the expedition Champlain, whose merit he had learned in Acadia. Born beside the sea, Champlain had spent most of his life upon it and had all the seaman's love of wandering and adventure. He had made voyages to the West Indies and to the St. Lawrence. He had fought, too, beside the king in the civil wars. In the Acadian adventure no one was more

hardy, active, and untiring than he; and so unfailing were his merry wit and good-humour that few could long remain ill-tempered or down-hearted in his company. In no less degree did he possess the high courage and the energy so necessary for a leader of men. He now gave his whole heart to the new enterprise, and for nearly thirty years we shall find him labouring patiently and unselfishly to plant the power of France in the wilds of Canada, and to convert the Indian tribes to the Christian religion.

Quebec Founded.—In July, 1608, De Monts' party, with Champlain in command, arrived at the great rock on which Stadacona had stood. No trace of the former town remained. The Algonquin Indians, now living near-by, called the spot Quebec, meaning "the place where the river narrows," and this name, adopted by the French, it has ever since retained. The active Frenchmen went to work with a will, and in a short time finished a group of comfortable buildings and surrounded them with a stockade of tree-trunks.

Among the colonists were a number of lawless fellows who, perhaps, had hoped to do as they pleased in the new land. These, disliking Champlain's firm rule, planned to kill him. Fortunately their wicked scheme was betrayed. Champlain cleverly got them into his power, hanged the leader, and pardoned the rest. There was no more plotting.

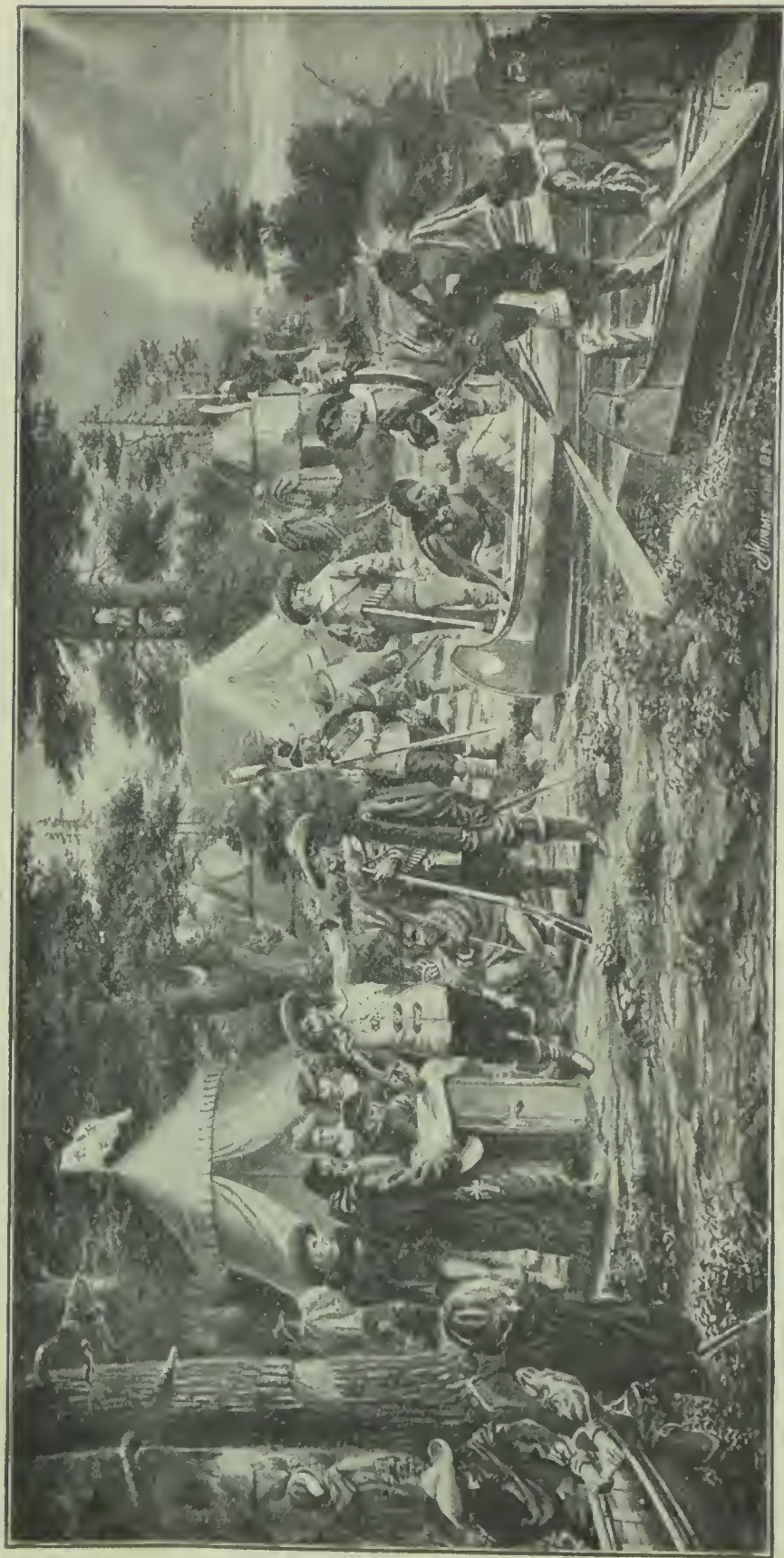
But more dangerous than plots was the Canadian winter. The colonists, probably, were ill-prepared for the cold. Scurvy broke out, and, when the ships returned from France in June, Champlain had but seven companions out of twenty-seven to welcome them.

Champlain's Indian Policy.—Champlain now prepared to carry out the plans for which the colony was founded.

He left to others the care of the fur-trade, in order that he might explore the forest wilderness and the mighty waterway by which he hoped a route might yet be found to the countries of the East. But trade and exploration both depended on the good-will of the neighbouring Indians.

Now it so happened that the Algonquins on the St. Lawrence and the Hurons who lived south of Georgian Bay were at war with the Iroquois, the fiercest and most powerful of the Indian tribes. The allies thought it would be a fine thing if they could bring against their dreaded foe the aid of the French, who could, with the thunder and lightning of their wonderful weapons, slay their enemies from afar. Champlain gladly agreed to help them, hoping to win their friendship and to make them dependent on the French.

The Fight with the Iroquois.—When a war party was collected from both tribes, Champlain with several followers joined it. They approached the Iroquois country by the route of the St. Lawrence and Richelieu Rivers, and entered the beautiful lake to which Champlain gave his own name. When near its upper end, they came upon a party of the enemy. When the fight began in the near-by wood, Champlain advanced to the front. The sight struck the Iroquois with amazement. "I looked at them," says Champlain, "and they looked at me. When I saw them getting ready to shoot their arrows at us, I levelled my musket, which I had loaded with four balls, and aimed straight at one of the chiefs. The shot brought down two and wounded another." When another Frenchman fired upon them from the cover of the woods, the astounded Iroquois thought no more of resistance and fled into the forest. The allies followed, killing or capturing most of them. After a

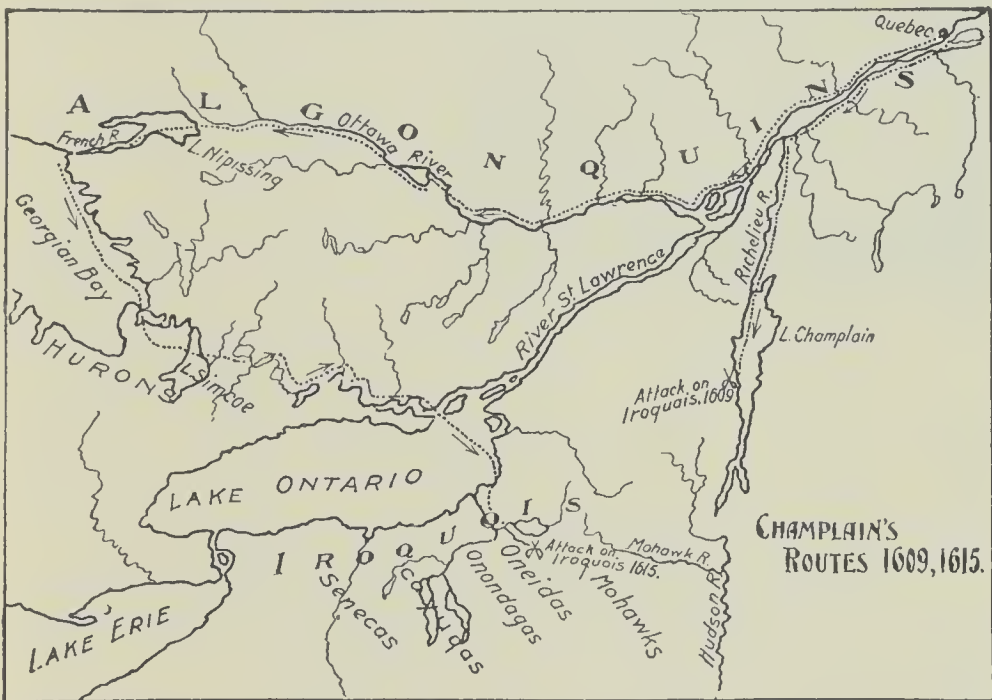


CHAMPLAIN LANDING ON THE SHORES OF GEORGIAN BAY

From a Painting in the National Club, Toronto

victory so easy and complete, the victors turned homeward rejoicing. Champlain's satisfaction would not have been so great could he have foreseen what cruel vengeance the Iroquois were to take in after years on the French and their Indian allies.

The Attack on the Iroquois Capital.—For several years after, Champlain's time was occupied with exploring expeditions in Canada, and in labouring in the interest of the colony at the French Court. In 1615 the Hurons invited him to visit their country and to join them in another attack on the Iroquois. To reach his friends Champlain took the northern route by way of the Ottawa



River, Lake Nipissing, and Georgian Bay. With a great force of Huron warriors he continued his way by canoe through lakes and streams and around the eastern end of Lake Ontario. Four days more of stealthy creeping through the woods brought them to the Iroquois capital. It was surrounded with a palisade of heavy tree trunks.

Champlain ordered a wooden tower to be built and pushed on rollers against the wall, so that the French could shoot down from it upon the garrison. When the attack thus began, the Hurons, contrary to Champlain's orders, swarmed out into the open, leaping and yelling. They tried to set fire to the palisade, but stupidly lighted it on the leeward side, where it was soon put out. The Iroquois fought bravely, using their arrows and stones with great effect. The Hurons, disappointed and discouraged, retreated, carrying Champlain, who had been severely wounded, in a big basket.

After a winter spent in the Huron country, Champlain returned to Quebec in the spring. The colonists, who had given him up for dead, welcomed him with great rejoicing; and well they might, for he alone was strong enough and wise enough to guide the colony through the weakness and troubles of its infancy.

The Weakness of the Colony.—During the next twelve years there were many changes in the fur-company. De Monts had long since retired, well-nigh ruined by his unselfish efforts to colonize Canada. His successors seemed to care only for the profits of the fur-trade. They sent out so few colonists, that the permanent population was still under a hundred, mostly employed in the fur-trade. One alone supported himself and his family by tilling the soil—let us remember the name of Louis Hébert, the first Canadian farmer.

The Iroquois were emboldened by their victory over Champlain and now sent their war-parties to attack the Algonquins and the French. Quebec was in serious danger, for, owing to the neglect of the company, the fort was so weakly defended that it was humorously described as having two old women for a garrison and two hens for sentinels.

The Hundred Associates.—Champlain was untiring in his efforts for the welfare of the colony and at last succeeded in securing the aid of Cardinal Richelieu, then the real ruler of France. In 1627 this great statesman transferred the fur monopoly to a new company with himself at its head. It included about a hundred of the leading merchants and gentlemen interested in Canada—hence its name. Its charter required the company to send four thousand colonists to Canada within ten years, to support them for three years after their arrival, and to provide priests for each settlement. The new company acted promptly. Early in 1628 a fleet was sent out with colonists and supplies, but it never reached Quebec.



THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC BY
DAVID KIRKE

The English Take Quebec.—In the same year war broke out between France and England. An expedition under David Kirke was sent by the English to drive the French from Canada. Kirke sailed up the St. Lawrence, but did not venture to attack Quebec. At Tadoussac, however, he fell in with the fleet sent by the Hundred Associates and sank or captured every ship.

Champlain and his hungry companions at Quebec awaited in vain the arrival of the fleet. During the

winter they suffered terribly, and, when Kirke returned in 1629, the French were glad to surrender to save themselves from starvation. Champlain and the



MONUMENT TO CHAMPLAIN AT
QUEBEC

other officials were sent to France. For three years the English remained at Quebec, making what profit they could from the fur-trade. In 1632 the war was ended by the treaty of St. Germain, and Canada and Acadia were restored to France.

Champlain's Return and Death.— In 1633 Champlain again landed at Quebec. He now represented the Hundred Associates and at once resumed his work in the country for whose welfare he had given the best years of his life.

There was much to be done, for the colony was in a weak and disorganized condition. More than ever he devoted himself to his religious duties and gave much thought to the plans of the missionaries, believing that "the conversion of a single soul is of more importance than the conquest of a kingdom." But his strength was failing. He was stricken with paralysis in the autumn of 1635, and, after lingering helpless for ten weeks, he passed away on Christmas Day. We shall read of many great and good

men in the story of Canada, but of none more pure, unselfish, or heroic than this "Father of New France."

Happenings in Acadia—We must now re-visit Acadia, where in the meantime important events had taken place. Although Port Royal had been abandoned, nothing could discourage Poutrincourt, who had learned to love his forest home. In 1610 he returned, with the king's permission, to the deserted buildings of the former settlement. The Indians gladly welcomed the kindly Frenchman. Many of them accepted the teachings of the missionaries and were baptized into the Roman Catholic Church.

Meanwhile the English, who claimed the Atlantic coast region by right of the discoveries of the Cabots, had founded a colony at Jamestown in Virginia. When they heard that the French had occupied Acadia, they sent a small force to drive them out. The expedition, arriving at Port Royal when most of the French were absent, plundered and burnt the little settlement without resistance. Thus began the great dispute between France and England in North America, which in time was to involve the possession of half the continent.

For a time Port Royal was neglected by both English and French. In 1621 King James I of England granted Acadia to a Scottish friend, Sir William Alexander. In the charter the territory was named Nova Scotia—Latin for New Scotland. Alexander's attempts at colonization did not prove successful, and eleven years later, as we have seen, the country was restored to France.

CHAPTER V

THE RULE OF THE HUNDRED ASSOCIATES

The Company Neglectful, the Church Active.—The Company of the Hundred Associates were now the rulers of Canada. They chose Montmagny to succeed Champlain as governor. But it soon appeared that, whoever was governor, the new company did not differ much from the old in their treatment of Canada. They were eager enough to reap the profits of the fur-trade, but were very unwilling to go to the expense of sending out to the colony settlers whose presence there would interfere with their monopoly. At no time during their rule did the white population exceed two thousand, and very few of that number were really settlers who were making their homes in Canada.

But if the company were neglectful of their duty, the Church was most active in good work. There was now great religious zeal in France. The Jesuits and other orders of priests were everywhere trying to extend the influence of the Roman Catholic Church. Canada was thought to be one of the most promising fields of labour. A large number of priests accompanied Champlain on his return in 1633, and, for a time, the Church was by far the greatest power in the colony. In 1637 a seminary was founded at Quebec for the education of priests, with a school for Indian boys attached. Later, a convent for French and Indian girls was established. About the same time a hospital was built with money given by a rich lady in France.

The Founding of Montreal, 1642.—Montreal owes its origin to another religious enterprise. A number of men eager for the conversion of the Indians planned to found a mission settlement from which the scattered tribes could be more easily reached than from Quebec. They chose the Island of Montreal as the most suitable site for their purpose. Maisonneuve was selected leader of the enterprise and was sent out with a party of colonists. At Quebec they were warned by Montmagny of the dangers from the Iroquois to which they would be exposed. "It is my duty and my honour to found a colony at Montreal" replied the courageous leader, "and I would go, if every tree were an Iroquois." The settlement was finished and enclosed with a palisade before the enemy was aware of its existence. But afterwards it was unsafe for the colonists to visit the neighbouring fields or woods except in armed bands. The people of Montreal spared no effort to attract the friendly Indians to the place, not so much to trade with them as to teach them. A hospital was built where their sick



THE MAISONNEUVE MONUMENT
AT MONTREAL

and wounded might be cared for. When the warriors were absent on some distant expedition, the women and children were sheltered and fed by the French.

The Jesuit Mission among the Hurons.—The Hurons, living in large stationary villages, offered a much more



THE FIRST MASS AT MONTREAL

From the Maisonneuve Monument

promising field for mission work than the roving bands of Algonquins. In 1634 three Jesuits—Brébeuf, Daniel, and Lalemant—made their home in the principal town of the tribe and began their work. The Indians treated them kindly enough and were greatly interested in the clock, the hand-mill, the magnifying glass, and other wonders shown by their visitors. But for a long time they refused to accept the new faith. When pestilence swept off great numbers of the tribe, the missionaries were blamed for it by the “medicine-men.” For a time their lives were in great danger. Gradually however, their patience, kindness, and unselfishness won

the savage hearts of the Indians, and the number of converts grew steadily.

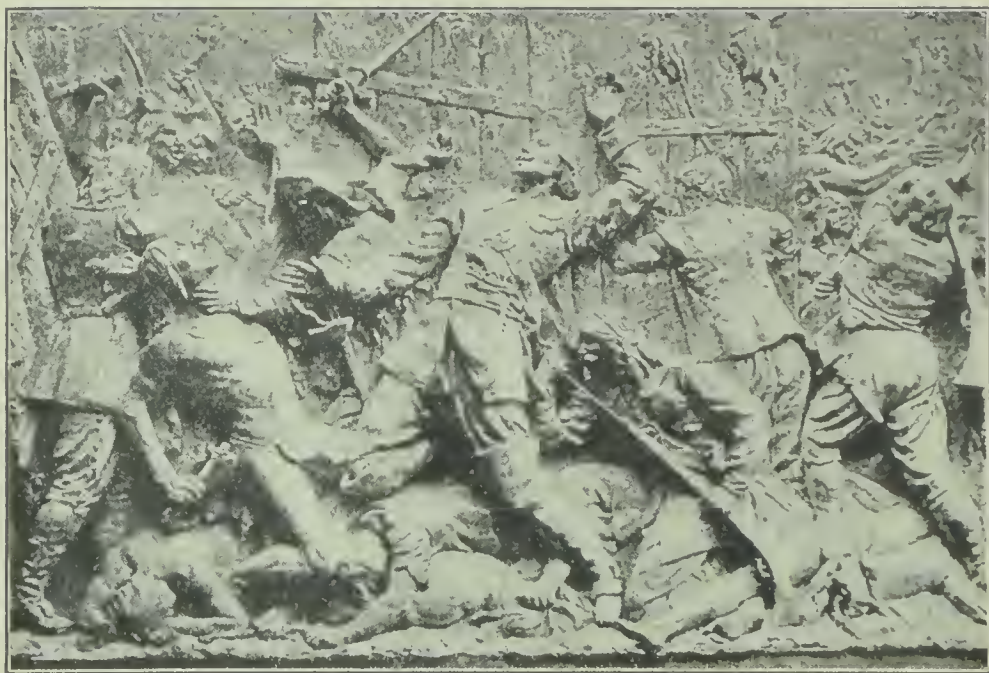
Destruction of the Hurons.—But now the Huron nation was threatened with ruin. The power of their Iroquois enemies had been greatly increased by the possession of fire-arms obtained from the Dutch of New York, and they now determined to destroy the Hurons and their French allies. In 1648 they suddenly burst in upon the mission village of St. Joseph, when most of the men were absent. Many of the women and children were crowded into the chapel, where service was being conducted by Father Daniel. "Fly!" he cried to the terrified throng; "as for me I must die here. We shall meet in heaven." Coming from the church to meet the Iroquois, he was at once riddled with their bullets and fell dead with the name of Jesus on his lips. The village was burned, and most of its people were killed on the spot or tortured to death at the homes of their captors. A like fate overtook the other towns.

At St. Louis, in the Mission of St. Ignace, the Hurons resisted bravely, but in vain. The missionary, Brébeuf, was captured with the others and bore the most fiendish tortures without a murmur. Maddened by his heroic endurance and his warnings to themselves, his tormentors thrust red-hot irons down his throat to silence him and poured boiling water on his head in mockery of the rite of baptism. Father Lalemant met with a similar fate.

Panic-stricken at such disasters, the remaining Hurons abandoned their country and descended to Quebec to seek the protection of the French. The feud between them and the Iroquois continued unabated for centuries. It was not until 1921, during the celebration at Penetanguishene of the three hundredth anniver-

sary of the discovery of Lake Huron, that the pipe of peace was smoked and the hatchet formally buried between the two nations.

How Canada was Saved, 1660.—The war-parties of the Iroquois now turned their whole force against Canada.



THE DEATH OF DOLLARD

From the Maisonneuve Monument at Montreal

The number of the soldiers in the colony was so small that the French could make no headway against the enemy, but could cling only to the fortified posts of Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. When they learned that twelve hundred savage Iroquois were on the war-path, it seemed as if the fate of the unfortunate Hurons awaited themselves.

At Montreal there was a young officer, Daulac, or Dollard, who resolved to strike a blow at the enemy. After obtaining the permission of Maisonneuve, he ascended the Ottawa, accompanied by sixteen young

volunteers, to meet a band of Iroquois who were approaching by that route. His party encamped at the foot of the Long Sault Rapids, where they occupied a fort, previously made by some war-party. Here they were joined by a small force of Algonquin and Huron Indians. When an advance party of the enemy was seen descending the rapids, the allies opened fire from the bank, but were compelled to take refuge in their fort when the main body arrived. For three days the Iroquois kept up the attack. But they were repulsed with such loss, that they sent for five hundred of their warriors who were awaiting them below Montreal. In the meantime, the garrison was greatly weakened by the desertion of the Hurons, who hoped by this means to save their lives. On the arrival of their friends, the Iroquois renewed their attacks with redoubled vigour. They met with fierce resistance. At last, protected by thick wooden shields, they reached the foot of the palisade, hacked their way through, and shot down the defenders, who fought like lions to the end. The Iroquois had won, but at what a cost!

Eight days later Radisson and Groseilliers, two of the most famous fur-traders of the time, accompanied by five hundred Huron and Algonquin warriors, came sweeping down the Ottawa on their return from one of their expeditions. They had heard that the Iroquois were on the war-path and were quite prepared. As they neared the Long Sault Rapids, they caught sight of a number of canoes filled with Iroquois, who fled before the oncoming Frenchmen. Suspecting that the enemy would try to prevent his further passage by entrenching themselves at the foot of the rapids, Radisson led a party of his men across the portage. The Iroquois were there in a rough palisade near the river,

but their canoes were still in the water. Radisson was quick to see his advantage. He instructed his men to creep quietly towards the canoes, sheltering themselves behind bales of furs which they pushed before them as they advanced. The Iroquois were caught in a trap. Abandoning the fort, they rushed to the river, jumped into their canoes, and paddled away to safety.

Although Radisson did not know it at the time, the fort from which he had driven the Iroquois was that in which Dollard had made his glorious stand only a few days before. Evidences of the ferocious struggle were everywhere. As Radisson says: "It was terrible, for we came there eight days after the defeat."

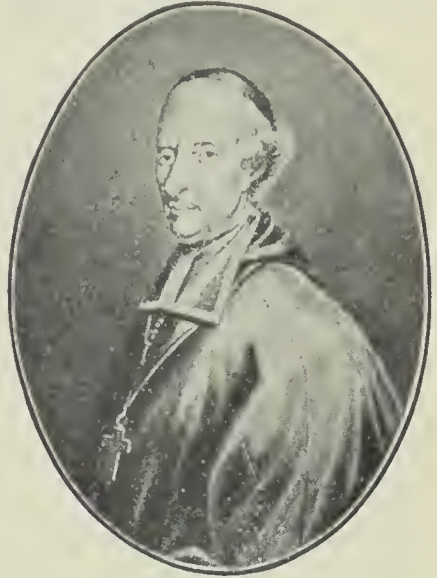
After their experiences with Dollard and Radisson the Iroquois had no heart for further attacks on such determined foes and returned home, leaving Canada safe for the time.

Laval and the Liquor Traffic.—The peace of the colony was also disturbed by quarrels between the clergy and the officials of the company. The leading churchman of this time was Laval, afterwards the bishop of Canada. He was a man of high rank and strong character, and was very zealous in promoting education and in extending the influence of his Church. As representative of the Pope, he insisted that he should have more honour and power than the governor. In these disputes Laval, supported by the Jesuits, usually got his own way.

He was, however, unable to stop the liquor traffic. The Indians became extremely fond of "fire-water," as they called the French brandy. Under its influence they became little better than madmen and were guilty of all kinds of crime and violence. The missionaries lost control over them, and the good effects of years of patient toil and teaching were destroyed. The traders,

however, refused to stop the sale, for they found their profits were greatly increased by it. They were upheld by the governors. Their excuse was that, if the traffic were stopped, the Indians would carry their furs to the Dutch of New York, and as a result the trade of Canada would be entirely ruined.

Royal Government Established, 1663.—Laval now saw that the company would never rescue the colony from the evil plight into which it had fallen. He went to France, and persuaded the king to cancel the charter of the Hundred Associates and to assume the government of Canada himself.



BISHOP LAVAL

Progress in Acadia.—After Acadia was restored to the French in 1632, trading privileges were divided between two men, D'Aulnay and La Tour. Disputes arose between them that soon grew into open war. On one occasion D'Aulnay besieged La Tour's fort at St. John, when the owner and most of his men were absent. He met with such a stout resistance from La Tour's wife, that he was able to take it only through the treachery of a sentinel. The base D'Aulnay put the garrison to death as traitors and compelled their heroic mistress with a halter around her neck to witness the execution of her faithful soldiers.

Various changes followed. In 1654 a force from New England occupied Port Royal. In 1667, however, Charles II of England restored Acadia to France.

CHAPTER VI

THE GROWTH OF NEW FRANCE

The English Colonies in North America.—Before turning our attention to the growth of New France under royal government, it will be necessary, in order that we may understand the progress of events, to glance for a moment at the activities of England in the establishment of colonies in the New World. One of the great men of his time was Sir Walter Raleigh. In 1583 he sent out an expedition under the command of his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to form a settlement somewhere on the eastern coast of the continent. After taking possession of Newfoundland, Gilbert continued on his way, but perished in a storm which destroyed four of his five vessels.

Nothing daunted by this disaster, Raleigh sought and obtained permission to occupy the region extending from Florida to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He called the land Virginia, after Elizabeth, the virgin queen of England. Raleigh made several attempts to colonize this country, but none of them proved successful. After a time he was thrown into prison by the new king, James I, and could do no more. A company of merchants was formed, however, and in 1607 they planted the colony of Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in America. At first the settlers had much trouble with the Indians and suffered many hardships; however, in time they grew prosperous, largely through the cultivation of tobacco, for which they found a ready sale in England.

A few years later, a settlement of another kind was made farther north. There were at that time religious troubles in England. A number of people called Puritans wished to worship God in a way different from that required by the Established Church in England. The king and the bishops insisted that all should use the same religious services. Many of the Puritans preferred to seek new homes where they might enjoy liberty of worship. In 1620 a band of them, afterwards called the Pilgrim Fathers, sailed for America and landed at Plymouth, on the coast of what is now Massachusetts. Many thousands followed, making other settlements along the neighbouring shores. These people still loved their old home and called their new home New England.

Other colonies were established from time to time and quickly became self-supporting. The colonists grew their own grain and raised their own cattle. They spun the wool from their own sheep and made their own clothes. Living beside the sea, they soon engaged in fishing. They built ships, and carried timber and other articles to the mother-country. In 1673 the colony of New York was taken by force from the Dutch, so that, shortly after the French king took over the government of New France, England had an unbroken series of colonies along the Atlantic coast, extending from the southern boundary of the French possessions as far south as Florida. Of course, when France and England were at war, the colonial possessions also became engaged in the conflict. We shall see that the whole history of New France for many years to come was to be one almost continuous struggle with the English colonies to the south. That struggle is of prime importance, for its outcome meant that the North American continent was destined to be predominantly Anglo-Saxon.

The New Government.—When King Louis XIV ended the rule of the Hundred Associates, he placed the government of Canada in the hands of three officials, the governor, the bishop, and the intendant. There was also a “Superior Council” to advise and assist them. All were appointed by the king and were responsible for their acts to him alone. The governor, the first in rank, looked after the defence of the colony and had the management of Indian affairs. Church matters were controlled by the bishop; he appointed priests to the various settlements and removed them at his will. Education, too, was in his hands. The intendant was responsible for the internal affairs of the country—public works, trade, police, and the spending of all



A MOHAWK CHIEF

public money. He made and enforced the laws, being commissioned “to order everything as he shall see just and proper.” It will be seen that this form of government left no power in the hands of the people. Quarrels between the officials could be settled and wrongs could be righted only by the word of the king, three thousand miles away. Great abuses grew out of such a system, and many of them were never removed.

The Iroquois Punished.—The first need of the country was protection from the raids of the Iroquois. In 1665 the Marquis de Tracy was sent out as viceroy of all the French possessions in America, and with him came the then famous Carignan Regiment, numbering twelve

hundred men. Forts were at once built on the Richelieu to close the route by which the Indians usually invaded Canada. Next year Tracy led a strong force through the forests against the Mohawks, the nearest and most hostile of the Iroquois. The Indians were panic-stricken, when they saw the numbers of the French, and offered no resistance. Their five towns were destroyed, together with their supplies of corn for the winter. This blow had a deep effect on all the Iroquois tribes. They gladly made peace, and for twenty years the colony had rest from their attacks.

Increase of Population.—The peace made it safe to settle in the country, but the number of actual settlers was still very small. The king resolved that it should be increased. He sent agents through the northern and western districts of France to collect bands of young men, whom he sent to Canada at his own expense. There they received farms which they were expected to clear of forest and to cultivate. Shiploads of girls were then dispatched, also at the king's expense, to provide them with wives. When the war with the Iroquois was ended, the Carignan Regiment was disbanded, and large grants of money and land were made to officers and men who were willing to remain in the country. These settlers were placed principally along the Richelieu, where they would prove of great service, should the Indian troubles be renewed. It should be noticed that settlers did not come to Canada, as to New England, unaided by the state. When the attention of the king and his ministers was occupied with wars in Europe, emigration from France almost ceased.

Method of Settlement.—The system by which these new settlers held their lands was different from that now found in Canada. Large areas were granted to

gentlemen on condition of clearing them within a certain time. These *seigneurs*, as they were called, kept a part of their estate for themselves and divided the rest among tenants, who were willing to cultivate the land and to pay a small annual rent of a cent or two an acre. The tenant, or *habitant*, was also required to furnish some chickens and some wheat, to work a certain number of days a year on his seigneur's farm, to grind his grain at his mill, and to give him one fish in eleven for the privilege of fishing in the seigniorial stream. These conditions could not always be enforced; sometimes they were changed to a money payment and in after years were frequently the cause of much trouble. The farms of the *habitants* were long narrow strips running back from the river, on which the seigneurie usually fronted. The houses were built in a row along the bank, for in those days the streams were the only highways of travel. But in the upper part of the colony, where they were exposed to Indian attacks, they were often clustered within the stockade of the seigneur's manor house.

Talon and his Work.—The first intendant was Jean Talon, who came with De Tracy in 1665. The wide powers of his office gave him great opportunity; and for seven years he laboured earnestly, though often fruitlessly, for the prosperity of Canada. On his advice horses, cattle, and sheep were distributed among the colonists without charge. He encouraged the people to make their own clothes, shoes, and hats, to grow flax and hemp, and to manufacture soap and potash. He built a ship, in the hope that others would follow his example, and dispatched her with a load of fish, peas, and timber to the West Indies. In the records of the time we are told that ‘he studied with the affection of a father how to succour the poor and cause the colony

to grow, giving aid from the king to such as needed it." The king's aid, indeed, was asked and received for most new enterprises, so that the people grew accustomed to depend for success on such aid, rather than on their own energy and foresight.

**The Fur-Trade and the Cour-
eurs de Bois.**—Fur was still by far the most important article of commerce. The monopoly, transferred to a new company for a while, was abolished in 1674, and the king sold licenses to trade. In order to retain control over the traffic he ordered that it should be



JEAN TALON

confined to the settlements, and established annual fairs at Montreal and Three Rivers, to which the Indians might gather from far and near and exchange their furs for the knives, hatchets, guns, and copper kettles of the French. These fairs were usually opened by the governor with impressive ceremonies, but frequently they ended in a drunken riot.

But many adventurous traders, regardless of law or punishment, carried their wares, brandy especially, to the Indian villages in the distant wilderness. Often they were in secret league with some high official, who gave them protection and shared their profits. Such were the famous *coureurs de bois*—bush-rangers. Among their number were the most active and high-spirited of the settlers, many of whom grew weary of the hard, monotonous life of farm clearing and the strict rule of the Church and state. Such gladly escaped to the wild, free life of the woods. This emigration was a serious

drain on the strength of the colony. Yet the services of such men were not wholly lost; for in the work of exploring and occupying the West, the *coureurs de bois* played no unimportant part.



A COUREUR DE BOIS

Frontenac.—In 1672 Talon and Courcelle, the governor, returned to France. The latter was succeeded by Count Frontenac, one of the most remarkable of Canadian rulers. He had long served in the armies of France and had proved himself to be a brave and skilful soldier. But he was proud and obstinate, and was excited almost to madness by opposition to his will. Soon after his arrival Frontenac quarrelled with the other officials. Laval, now bishop, was equally unyielding in temper, and the two constantly disputed over the old questions of conflicting authority and of the liquor traffic. The intendant, Du-

chesneau, sided with the bishop and accused Frontenac, who was poor, of secretly engaging in the fur-trade to increase his fortune. The governor returned the charge. Probably both the intendant and the governor were equally guilty.

Frontenac showed great skill in dealing with the Indians, on whose good-will depended the success of the French advance to the West. He won their affection by the richness of his gifts, by joining in their sports, and conforming to their ways when among them, while his proud bearing and air of authority always held them

in awe. No governor since Champlain had gained such an influence over them.

In spite of Frontenac's great services to New France, his incessant disputes with the bishop and with the intendant were a source of great weakness to the colony. Finally, in 1682, the king recalled both the governor and the intendant, in order that the struggling colony might have peace from their bitter quarrels.

The English on Hudson Bay.—

From the time of the discovery of Hudson Bay by Henry Hudson and the expeditions sent in the vain search for him and his companions, the English had taken no steps to occupy the territory they still claimed as their own. It is singular that their attention should have been again attracted to this region, with far-reaching results, by two French fur-traders, Pierre Esprit Radisson and Medard Chouart, Sieur des Groseilliers.

Radisson, the more daring and enterprising of the partners, had been captured, when a boy of only sixteen, by the Iroquois and carried away as a prisoner to the torture. But his courage and cheerfulness in captivity so won upon the Indians that they spared his life and adopted him into their tribe. He learned their language and apparently became one of themselves. He was not contented, however, to stay with the Indians and made up his mind to escape at the very first opportunity. In his first attempt he was captured; but, although



COUNT FRONTENAC

cruelly tortured, he was forgiven. His second attempt was more successful, and he reached in safety his home at Three Rivers in 1654, after an absence of two years.

Four years later, Radisson, by means of a clever trick, succeeded in rescuing a Jesuit mission among the Onanagas from certain massacre. This exploit caused his fame to ring throughout New France. Priest and people alike hailed him as a hero.

Soon after this, Radisson arranged with his brother-in-law, Groseilliers, who was a fur-trader of long experience, to make an expedition into the unknown West. In June, 1658, they set out from Three Rivers, and, at Montreal, they were joined by a band of Algonquin Indians. With the Indians they made the journey up the Ottawa and across Lakes Huron and Michigan to Green Bay. Their progress was one continuous battle with the Iroquois, but, under the skilful leadership of Radisson, the party won its way through. It is hard to say exactly where the adventurers passed the following summer. It is altogether probable that they were the first white men to look upon the waters of the Mississippi River of the North and also that they went even as far as the Bad Lands of Montana to the west. At any rate, the fall found them at Sault Ste Marie, where they passed the winter. In the spring they returned to Montreal, escorted by five hundred Indians, their canoes laden with rich cargoes of precious furs. It was on this return journey that they encountered the Iroquois at Dollard's ruined fort on the Ottawa.

Radisson was now only twenty-six years of age, too young and too restless to take advantage of a leisure he had well earned. With Groseilliers again as his partner, he made up his mind to attempt to reach overland the Great Bay of the North, of which he had heard the Ind-

ians relate wonderful tales. But the governor at once put obstacles in his way. He would grant a license to trade only on condition that the partners would share equally with him the profits of the expedition. This offer they indignantly refused, and, nothing daunted, stole away secretly one night in August, 1661, once more to brave the dangers of the unknown wilderness. On this



INDIANS MAKING A PORTAGE

expedition the partners suffered severely, but there does not seem to be any doubt that they actually reached Hudson Bay. In the spring of 1663 they arrived at Quebec, this time escorted by seven hundred Indians, with three hundred and sixty fur-laden canoes. The furs were valued at \$300,000, but, after the partners had paid the penalties for trading without a license, they had for themselves only \$20,000. Groseilliers was for a time imprisoned. Thus the governor took his paltry revenge upon the two greatest explorers of their day.

Disgusted at their treatment by the governor and despairing of receiving justice from the king, Radisson and Groseilliers determined to reach Hudson Bay by sea, in spite of both governor and king. They again made their escape from Quebec, but their plans failed. Finally they reached Boston. They did not dare to return to Canada; France was closed to them. While at Boston, they were persuaded to go to England in order to interest Charles II in their enterprise. On their way they were captured by the Dutch, who were at that time at war with England, and were landed in Spain. It was not until 1666 that they were able to reach London.



PRINCE RUPERT

At Oxford, where the court then was, the king received them graciously and listened with interest to their plans. Headed by Prince Rupert of the Rhine, the cousin of the king, a number of noblemen and merchants contributed the necessary money to equip an expedition to Hudson Bay. Two vessels were provided, the *Eaglet*, with Radisson in command, and the *Nonsuch*, in charge of Groseilliers. In 1668 the two vessels sailed from London on their adventurous voyage. The *Eaglet*, however, was compelled by storms to return; but Groseilliers in the *Nonsuch* was more successful in weathering the storm and proceeded to the Bay without his partner. There

he built a fort, which he called Fort Charles, and spent the winter trading with the Indians. He found that the Indians belonged to the Cree nation, whose language he spoke with ease, so he had no difficulty in procuring all the furs desired. When he returned in the summer of 1669, he brought with him an overflowing cargo.

The noblemen and merchants were so pleased with the result of their venture that they immediately proceeded to organize a company under royal charter. The king was graciously pleased to grant their request, and on May 2nd, 1670, signed the charter incorporating the "Governor and Company of Adventurers of England Trading into Hudson's Bay." Thus was organized, with Prince Rupert as its first governor, the famous Hudson's Bay Company, of which we shall hear so much in the history of the North-West of Canada, and whose real founders were the two French adventurers, Radisson and Groseilliers.

Immediately after the organization of the company, Radisson and Groseilliers visited the Bay and opened up a prosperous trade with the Indians. But a great change was at hand. Dissatisfied with the niggardly way in which their services had been rewarded, the partners unexpectedly deserted the English company and returned to their former allegiance. Once more, after almost ruining the Hudson's Bay Company, they landed at Quebec with an almost priceless cargo of furs. Once more their cargo was seized by a greedy governor, and once more they were refused justice by the king, who, moreover, forbade them to attack the English on Hudson Bay. Groseilliers gave up in despair and retired to his home in Three Rivers. Radisson, more bitter than his partner at the ingratitude of the French, returned to the service of the English company, sailed for the Bay with a small fleet, and completely destroyed his former work for the

French in that territory. The company was once more prosperous and, taught by their past mistakes, rewarded splendidly their tried servant. Radisson remained in their service until his death in 1710. Thus closed the career of one of the most picturesque and romantic figures in the history of Canada.

The French Advance to the West.—We have already noticed the keen interest taken by Talon in promoting the prosperity of New France. He was interested, however, not only in its commercial progress but also in



MISSIONARY AND INDIANS ON A JOURNEY

extending its boundaries. His plans included the occupation by France of the whole interior of the continent, and, for this purpose, he made use of the fur-trader, the missionary, and the explorer alike. In 1670, he instructed Daumont de Saint-Lusson to proceed to Lake Superior to search for copper mines and, also, in the name of the king of France to take possession of the country west of the Upper Lakes. Saint-Lusson was expected to

pay the expenses of the expedition from the profits of the trade in furs with the Indians.

Accompanied by fifteen men Saint-Lusson set out, reaching Sault Ste Marie in May, 1671. There he found a mission of the Jesuits already established. Representatives of fifteen Indian tribes were assembled to meet him. Surrounded by his men, the Jesuit fathers, and the wondering Indians, Saint-Lusson issued his proclamation claiming the western land for his king. A large wooden cross was reared and beside it a cedar post, on which was



JOLIET AND MARQUETTE SETTING OUT TO SEARCH FOR THE
MISSISSIPPI RIVER

nailed a metal plate bearing the royal arms of France. As soon as the explorer had turned homewards, the plate was stolen by the Indians.

Talon, however, was not satisfied. He was determined to find the Mississippi, the great river of which he had heard from the Indians, and to obtain possession for his country of the region through which it flowed. His return to France interfered with his plans, but, before leaving Canada, he arranged with Frontenac, the new governor, to entrust the expedition to Louis Joliet, a Canadian fur-trader who had been at Sault Ste Marie with Saint-Lusson. Joliet chose as his companion, Father Jacques

Marquette, a Jesuit priest from the Upper Lakes. In 1673, with five Indians and two birch-bark canoes, they made their way from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi and descended that river to the mouth of the Arkansas. In order to prevent the furs coming from these regions from being diverted by English traders to Albany, Frontenac built a strong fort at the outlet of Lake Ontario, where the city of Kingston now stands, and gave to it his own name.

La Salle Occupies the Mississippi Valley.—There was living at this time in Canada a young man, Robert de



THE SEIGNEURY AT LACHINE

- | | | | |
|----------|-------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| (1) Mill | 2) Priest's House | (3) Chapel | (4) Seigneur's House |
| (5) Barn | (6) Palisades | (7) Bastions | |

La Salle, seigneur of Lachine. Of a bold and adventurous nature, he was fired with the ambition to explore the Mississippi to its mouth, and so add the West to the dominions of France. It might be found to flow into the Pacific, he thought, and would in that case afford the long-sought-for route to the countries of the East. Frontenac heartily supported La Salle's

plans, granted him a charter to trade in furs and buffalo hides, and transferred to him Fort Frontenac as a base of supplies.

From this point La Salle made many journeys to the West. He established posts on Lake Michigan and on the Illinois River, a tributary of the Mississippi, from which he opened up trade with the Illinois and other Indian tribes. In 1682 he descended the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico, taking formal possession of the whole valley and naming it Louisiana, in honour of Louis XIV, king of France.

In the recall of Frontenac in 1682 La Salle lost a powerful friend. His enemies succeeded in depriving him of his monopoly, and creditors seized Fort Frontenac. La Salle returned to France, where he was regarded as a hero. The king put him in command of an expedition to enter the Gulf of Mexico and establish a post at the mouth of the Mississippi. It proved a failure. La Salle, disliked for his stern rule and haughty manner, was murdered by some of his men. Some years passed before a permanent settlement was made in the new territory.



ROBERT DE LA SALLE

CHAPTER VII

TWENTY YEARS OF WAR

Iroquois Hostility.—About the time of La Salle's establishment among the Illinois, their country was invaded by the Iroquois. The Iroquois were led by the needs of trade as well as by love of conquest; for, the beaver having become scarce in their own land, the skins from the West became their only means of buying the necessary supplies of arms and ammunition from the English. Their war-parties began to plunder the French and to slaughter the Indians who traded with them. The power of France in the West was thus endangered almost as soon as it had been established.

Frontenac's strong hand had been withdrawn, and his successor, La Barre, was a weak, greedy old man, who hoped to enrich himself by the western trade. So alarmed was he at the danger that he agreed to a treaty which promised peace to the French, but left their Indian allies to the mercy of the Iroquois. For this the king recalled him and sent out Denonville with orders to pursue a bolder policy. In 1687 the new governor gathered a great force of soldiers, *coureurs de bois*, and Indians to attack the Senecas, the most hostile of the Iroquois tribes. Their towns were burnt without much resistance; but, though the nest was destroyed, the wasps were not killed. Their stings were soon felt. On his way to the Seneca country Denonville had seized some friendly Iroquois and had sent them to France to serve as galley-slaves. The whole Iroquois nation were

enraged at this mad act of the governor, as well as at the raid on the Senecas. Their war-parties were again let loose on Canada, so that life was unsafe outside of the fortified posts.

At last Denonville proposed peace, intending, like La Barre, to sacrifice the friendly Indian tribes. Kondiaronk, a noted Huron chief, saw the danger to his people. With a few warriors he fell upon the Iroquois ambassadors and killed a number. Pretending ignorance of their mission, he craftily laid the blame of his treacherous act on the French. The Iroquois readily believed him and took a terrible revenge.

The Massacre of Lachine.—In August, 1689, fifteen hundred warriors, under cover of night and a terrific thunderstorm, suddenly fell upon the village of Lachine, a few miles above Montreal. Roused by their wild war-whoops, the inhabitants rushed forth only to fall by the tomahawk of the savages. Two hundred were butchered, many were captured and reserved for future torture. Although Denonville was at Montreal with a considerable force, he made no serious effort to drive the Iroquois off. For weeks they roamed over the surrounding country, killing and plundering at will.

Canada seemed on the brink of destruction. For two years the harvests had been destroyed and the fur-trade stopped. The western tribes were ready to desert to the foe. Now came the news that war had been declared between France and England. In such a crisis a strong man was needed, and in October Frontenac was again appointed governor.

King William's War, 1689-1697.—This war in Europe was caused by the determination of Louis of France to restore James II to the throne of England, from which he had been driven by the English people under

the leadership of William of Orange. In America there were colonial disputes to settle. The English of New York were alarmed at the westward advance of the French and were accused by the latter of inciting Iroquois raids on Canada. Acadia and New England both claimed what is now the state of Maine, and border warfare had already begun.

In the north, too, there was strife. The energy of the Hudson's Bay Company had succeeded in inducing the northern Indians to trade with them instead of with the Company of the North, the French company which at that time controlled the fur-trade. They had built four trading-posts—Fort Nelson, near the mouth of the Nelson River, and three posts on James Bay, Forts Moose,



PIERRE LE MOYNE
D'IBERVILLE

Rupert, and Albany. Encouraged by Denonville, the Company of the North determined to seize the southern posts, in order to destroy the trade and influence of their great rival. An expedition was accordingly organized at Montreal in the spring of 1686 and hurriedly sent northward by way of the Ottawa River. With the expedition, which was under the command of the Chevalier de

Troyes, went Pierre Le Moyne D'Iberville, of whom we shall hear more later. For three months the party of determined Frenchmen toiled their way through the rough wilderness. The surprise of the three posts was complete. They surrendered with scarcely a blow.

Border Warfare.—On his arrival in Canada, Frontenac acted with his usual promptness and energy. He

sent a force to Michilimackinac, an important trading station at the entrance of Lake Michigan, with a message to the neighbouring tribes commanding them to return to their allegiance and promising them protection from the Iroquois. During the winter he prepared three war-parties to give the English colonies a taste of what Canada had suffered from the Indians. In turn, Schenectady in New York, Salmon Falls in New Hampshire, and Casco (now Portland) in Maine, were surprised and destroyed. Their inhabitants were slaughtered or carried away captive. These successes greatly encouraged the Canadians and restored Frontenac's influence over the Western Indians. They did not so much weaken, as anger, the English.

The English Attack on Canada, 1690.—With the return of spring, Massachusetts sent a force under Sir William Phips to occupy Port Royal and other settlements in Acadia. In the summer the other colonies joined her in organizing two expeditions against Canada. One was to set out from Albany and advance against Montreal by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu. Phips, in command of the other, sailed from Boston for the St. Lawrence with thirty-two ships and over two thousand men. His soldiers were brave but undisciplined, and ill-supplied with provisions and ammunition. It was the middle of October before he arrived at Quebec. Frontenac had greatly strengthened the fortifications. When summoned to surrender, he haughtily replied that such a demand would be answered only by the cannon's mouth. When the English attacked, the fiery old governor conducted the defence with such spirit that Phips, finding his supply of powder and cannon-ball running low, after a week's fighting drew off and sailed for home. In Quebec there was great rejoicing

over the deliverance. Bonfires blazed in honour of Frontenac. As a more lasting memorial of his triumph,



CHURCH OF NOTRE DAME DES VICTOIRES,
QUEBEC

the church of "Notre Dame des Victoires" was erected.

The expedition from Albany fared no better. It advanced to the head of Lake Champlain; but its numbers, too small at first, were greatly reduced by smallpox. When the Iroquois refused to assist them, the project was abandoned.

The Heroine of Verchères.—Canada was now safe from serious attack from the English, but she

was still exposed to the raids of the Iroquois. The *habitant* took shelter in the forts, and work on the farms could be safely done only by armed bands. The dangers of the time, and the spirit with which they were often met, are illustrated by the defence of Verchères by the little daughter of its seigneur. In the absence of her parents a large party of Indians surprised and slaughtered the *habitant* in the neighbouring fields. Madeleine, a girl of fourteen, resolved to hold the fort to the death. She had for garrison her two brothers of ten and twelve, an old man of eighty, and two soldiers, who proved so cowardly as to be of little use. "I placed my brothers

on two of the bastions, the old man on the third, and I took the fourth; and all night, in spite of wind, snow, and hail, the cries of 'All's well!' were kept up. One would have thought the place was full of soldiers . . . I may say with truth that I did not eat or sleep for twice twenty-four hours, but kept always on the bastion. I always kept a cheerful and smiling face, and encouraged my little company with hope of speedy succour." The Indians, deceived by such a bold front, did not venture a direct attack, but prowled around until driven off by a small force from Montreal.

The End of the War.—

Meanwhile there was again strife on Hudson Bay. Fort Albany had been recaptured

by the English, but this success was quickly reversed in 1694 by the surrender to D'Iberville of Fort Nelson, the most important post of the Hudson's Bay Company. Two years later the Fort was again in the hands of the English, but D'Iberville was not discouraged. In 1697 he set out in command of five ships of war, with the determination to drive the English forever from Hudson Bay. The English, too, had a strong fleet. The French commander, however, did not desire at that time to engage in a naval battle. By skilful strategy he escaped the English in a single ship, attacked the three



MADELEINE DE VERCHÈRES

After a bronze statuette by Phillipe Hèbert

that pursued him, defeated them, and compelled the surrender of Fort Nelson. Only Fort Albany remained in possession of the English.

Peace was declared between England and France by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697. Acadia was recognized as French territory, while it was agreed that each nation was to retain its possessions on Hudson Bay.

Worn with age and the labours of his office, Frontenac died in 1698. However grave may have been the faults of his character, there can be no doubt of the greatness of his services to Canada during the late war. "He found it under Denonville in humiliation and terror, and he left it in honour, and almost in triumph."

Queen Anne's War, 1702-1713.—In a short time war again broke out between France and England over the succession to the throne of Spain. In America it was named after the sovereign then ruling in England.



FRONTIER VILLAGE PALISADE, 1704

Canada suffered little, for the Iroquois remained neutral; but the frontiers of New England were again cruelly ravaged by the Indians of Northern Maine under French leaders. It

was difficult to return an effective blow against so light-footed a foe. The sea afforded an open way to Acadia, however, and naval forces were sent at various times to destroy the settlements on the Bay of Fundy. In 1710 two thousand men under Nicholson sailed from Boston against Port Royal. The place was captured and re-named Annapolis in honour of the queen. A garrison was left to hold it, for the people of New England were firmly

resolved that it should not again be returned to the French.

Next year Britain sent a great fleet and army under Admiral Walker and General Hill to take Quebec. At the entrance to the St. Lawrence several ships struck on the reefs in a fog, and nearly a thousand men were drowned. Although they still had a force large enough for their purpose, the leaders, who were quite unfit for their positions, resolved to abandon their task and return to England.

The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.—In Europe France suffered many defeats from the great English general, Marlborough. The Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, closed the war. In order to secure peace, France was compelled to make many concessions. The Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Acadia were yielded to Great Britain. The Iroquois were declared to be British subjects. The boundaries of Acadia were not defined, but it was provided by the treaty that the islands of Cape Breton and St. John (Prince Edward) should remain French. By this treaty French ambition in America received its first decided check.

CHAPTER VIII

THIRTY YEARS OF PEACE

Louisiana.—North America enjoyed an interval of peace after the Treaty of Utrecht. France had ceded her territory most unwillingly, and she used this breathing-space to strengthen her position in the colonies she retained. Under the command of D'Iberville, whose exploits in the north have already been mentioned, an expedition was now sent to establish French power in Louisiana. Assisted by his brother, Bienville, he planted several trading-posts on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and on the Mississippi. The most important of these has grown into the city of New Orleans. To link Louisiana with Canada, and at the same time to exclude the British from the region, the French established a chain of forts along the Mississippi and the Great Lakes. At each were to be found the French trader to buy the Indian's furs, the French missionary to teach him Christianity and loyalty to France, and the French soldier to overawe him, should he become troublesome.

As we have seen, Louis XIV was unwilling to allow many of his subjects to emigrate from France, where they were needed to supply the losses in his constant wars, and to settle in the Mississippi valley where they would be almost beyond his control. After seventy years of French rule, the farming population of this vast country was confined to three or four tiny hamlets on the Mississippi and Detroit Rivers. Its trade, however, was constantly increasing in value.

The North-West.—The Treaty of Utrecht had given the territory of Hudson Bay to the British, but it was silent as to its boundaries. Although strongly urged by Radisson, the Hudson's Bay Company had steadily refused



to make any attempt to penetrate the unknown regions to the west of the Bay. They were quite content to have the Indians come to the trading-posts and did not think it necessary to establish posts in the interior to collect the furs in the hunting-grounds of the Indians

themselves. When, however, a number of their posts had been captured by the French and the Indians began to trade with the invaders, they were compelled to act promptly. The only difficulty was to find a man who could carry out their new plans. Their choice finally fell on Henry Kelsey, a former London street arab, who had come to Fort Nelson in one of Radisson's ships.



AN ASSINIBOINE
WARRIOR

Soon after his arrival at the Fort, Kelsey had run away and had spent some time with a band of Assiniboine Indians, whom he had accompanied to their far-away homes. There he had learned their language and had married a young woman of the tribe. In 1719, guided by the chief of the Assiniboines, he set out on his daring venture. His instructions from the company were to explore the country and to induce as many as possible of the distant tribes to bring their furs to the English posts on Hudson Bay. The expedition was a complete success. From his journal, which still exists, it is evident that Kelsey travelled about six hundred miles west from the Bay and reached a point somewhat north of the Saskatchewan River in the present province of that name. He has the honour of having been the first white man to explore the northern interior of the continent of North America.

In spite of the Hudson's Bay Company, with its posts on Hudson Bay and its trade with the Indians of the interior, the French still claimed the prairie country to the West. Many of the French traders turned longing eyes to this vast territory, which they knew to be

rich in furs and opportunities for trade. But there were difficulties in the way. The journey from Quebec or Montreal was long and hazardous, the fitting out of an expedition was very costly, and there was always the danger of hostile Indians. It was not, therefore, until 1731 that the French made any attempt to open up the country to the west of Lake Superior.

The leader in this enterprise was Pierre de la Vérendrye, a native-born Canadian, who had served with distinction in the French army in Europe and later had become a fur-trader in Canada. While in charge of a trading post on Lake Nipigon, he had been visited by an old Indian, who had revealed to him a wonderful tale of a great ocean far to the west, on the shores of which dwelt "men clad in armour and mounted on horses, and where are large towns visited by mighty ships." Lured by the hope of finding at last the Western Sea for which men had sought so long, Vérendrye made a hurried journey to Quebec, in order to interest the governor in his plans. The governor gave his hearty approval and promised aid from the king. The king, however, would grant nothing more than permission to trade with the Indians. Much disappointed, the courageous fur-trader hastened to Montreal, where he succeeded, by promising a rich return, in inducing a number of merchants to help him in raising the money necessary for the expedition.

At last all was ready. Accompanied by his three sons, Jean, Pierre, and François, and his nephew La Jemeraye, Vérendrye set out from Montreal in June 1731. Following the fur-traders route up the Ottawa, through Lake Huron and skirting the north shore of Lake Superior, the voyagers in seventy-eight days reached Grand Portage, about forty miles from the site of the present city of Fort William. There Vérendrye determined to

remain for the winter, while La Jemeraye went on to Rainy Lake, where he built Fort St. Pierre. In the spring Vérendrye joined his nephew, and the whole party journeyed forward to the Lake of the Woods. There they built a second fort, called Fort St. Charles. The third fort, Fort Maurepas, was built by Jean on Lake Winnipeg, where the rapid flowing Winnipeg River enters the Lake.



PIERRE DE LA VÉRENDRYE
From the Statue in the Legislative Buildings,
Winnipeg

Misfortune now overtook the valiant explorer. He was forced to make a journey to Montreal in order to obtain more funds from the merchants, and on his way back, was met with the news that his nephew had died, worn out by the long struggle. A little later Jean and twenty of his companions were massacred by the Sioux Indians. But Vérendrye was not daunted. In company with Pierre and François he set out from Fort

Maurepas in 1738 and made his way to the junction of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers. There he built Fort Rouge, where the city of Winnipeg now stands. Pushing ever westward he built Fort La Reine on the site of the present Portage La Prairie, and from there, accompanied by a large band of Assiniboines, he visited the Mandan Ind-

ians on the Missouri. But the Mandans knew nothing of the Western Sea. The journey back to Fort La Reine was full of hardship, and there Vérendrye's active career as an explorer ends.

His sons, however, were ready to take up his work. In 1739 François built Fort Dauphin on Lake Manitoba, and Fort Bourbon, near the mouth of the Saskatchewan. From there he ascended the river and built Fort Paskoyac, where the Pas now stands. In 1743 Pierre and François travelled as far west as the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains and, in the name of the king of France, took possession of the land they had explored.



THE HARBOUR OF LOUISBURG

Just as all difficulties seemed to be removed from the path of Vérendrye, he and his sons were summoned to Montreal to answer charges which had been laid against them by jealous traders and merchants. Vérendrye had little trouble in clearing himself and was restored to all his rights and privileges. But he was not to reach the Western Sea. In the midst of his preparations for returning to his beloved West, death overtook him. His sons were not permitted to finish the work their father had

begun so well. Other Frenchmen were sent to the West to establish French rule in the newly discovered territory.

Cape Breton.—After the loss of Acadia, France attached much importance to the island of Cape Breton. It was, as yet, almost unsettled, but in 1720 French engineers began to lay out the town of Louisburg on the southern shore. At an enormous cost it was made, next



A HOUSE OF THE FRENCH PERIOD

to Quebec, the strongest fortress in America. Its position was a commanding one. It guarded the first approaches to the St. Lawrence, the gateway of Canada. It served as a naval station from which the French could

strike a sudden blow at Acadia, or the older English colonies; as a haven for French fishermen, who thronged the surrounding waters; and as a refuge for French privateers, who, even in time of peace, preyed on English fishing and trading vessels. It is not surprising, therefore, that the people of New England watched its growth with alarm, and awaited only an opportunity to attack it.

Canada.—Canada enjoyed quiet prosperity during this period. The population, which had increased from 2,000 in 1660 to 10,000 in 1680, reached 60,000 by the middle of the eighteenth century. At that time the city of Quebec contained 8,000 souls and Montreal 4,000.

The fur-trade still remained the most profitable industry, but farming was growing in importance. In spite of Talon's early efforts, there were almost no manufactures before the eighteenth century. Afterwards, weaving, tanning, and ship-building were carried on in a small way. Trade was greatly hampered by many restrictions and monopolies, and the prices of goods were usually very high. All trade with the English colonies was forbidden, but could not be wholly prevented, especially in the region of the Great Lakes. One writer of the time tells us that the English traders gave the Indians twice as much as the French for their furs and asked only half as much for their own wares. Grain, lumber, and fish were sent to France in small quantities, but the value of beaver skins was twice as great as that of all other exports together.

Acadia.—The British government retained Acadia, or Nova Scotia, as it must now be called, to please New England; for the colonists wished not only to be rid of a troublesome neighbour, but also to control the valuable fisheries of the peninsula. For many years no attempt was made to bring out settlers, and British authority was represented only by a feeble garrison at Annapolis. A few English lived at Canso, then, as now, a great fishing centre.

The French Acadians remained in the country. Their settlements lay around the Bay of Fundy, where they had farms of rich marsh-land, won from the sea and protected by dykes. They were a simple, contented folk



AN ACADIAN WOMAN

who knew little about the outside world. The British levied no taxes on them, nor interfered in any way with their local affairs. In time they would, no doubt, have become loyal to their new rulers but for the influence of the French. The authorities at Quebec and Louisburg urged them to refuse to swear allegiance to the king of Great Britain, saying that the country would soon be in French hands again. In 1730 the British governor persuaded some of them to take the oath, but they did so only on the condition that they should be allowed to remain neutral in case of war. In the war about to begin they remained, for the most part, true to their promise.

CHAPTER IX

KING GEORGE'S WAR

The Capture of Louisburg, 1745.—After thirty years of peace the colonies in America were again disturbed by a war between the mother-countries in Europe. The French at Louisburg received the news first and resolved to take the English in Nova Scotia by surprise. A force, hastily collected, burned Canso and besieged Annapolis.



ANNAPOLIS ROYAL

The fortifications of the latter place were wretchedly weak. The garrison was small, but put on such a bold front that the French, who received less aid from the Acadians than was expected, retreated without making a serious attack.

The commerce of New England had already suffered much from Louisburg privateers, and the people were eager to fight. William Shirley, the governor of Massachusetts, persuaded the Assembly to vote sufficient money to send four thousand men against Louisburg. William Pepperell, a merchant of Boston, was placed

in command. Officers and men alike were untrained in war, but they had courage, enthusiasm, and shrewd common sense. At Canso the expedition was joined by

a British fleet under Commdore Peter Warren.



SIR WILLIAM PEPPEREL

So well had the secret been kept, that the first news of the expedition received by the French was from its appearance before the fortress. Warren's ships bombarded the city and prevented aid from reaching it by the sea. The army was poorly supplied with cannon, but early in the siege they captured a French

battery and turned its heavy guns on Louisburg. Many of the New England troops were skilled riflemen and kept the French from using their cannon with good effect. In seven weeks the provisions and ammunition of the garrison ran short, and the fortress surrendered. The news of its fall was received with wild joy in New England, and with equal dismay in France.

D'Anville's Failure.—The French resolved to retake Louisburg at any cost, and to punish the proud New Englanders. They prepared, under the command of Admiral D'Anville, the finest expedition yet sent to America, but it proved the most unfortunate. Storm after storm scattered and destroyed the fleet. Only a few vessels reached Chebucto Harbour (afterwards Halifax). Pestilence carried off men by hundreds; D'Anville died, and his successor, overburdened with cares, killed himself. The force was now too weak to attack either Louisburg or Boston. When the fleet

sailed to make an attempt on Annapolis, it was so shattered by another storm that the few survivors were glad to return to France.

A land force, which had been sent from Canada to aid D'Anville in Nova Scotia, remained at the isthmus of Chignecto. During the winter they marched around the head of Cobequid Bay to attack a party of Massachusetts men stationed at Grand Pré to watch over the Acadians. Hidden by darkness and a blinding snow storm, the French took their foes completely by surprise and killed or captured the whole of them.

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—When peace was restored between the two countries by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, Cape Breton with Louisburg was returned to France. The people of New England were angry and disappointed at this surrender, for they had spent much blood and money in capturing the hated stronghold. To soothe their feelings, the British government refunded the expenses of their expedition. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle did not end the long-standing boundary disputes between the British and French colonies, but it provided that commissioners from each nation should be appointed to discuss the opposing claims and, if possible, to settle them.

CHAPTER X

THE RIVALS AND THEIR CLAIMS

Colonial Rivalry.—We have noted the extension of French territory along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and the spread of the British colonies along the Atlantic coast; and we have seen disputes arise wherever the two peoples came into contact. The colonies had taken part in wars which were waged by the mother-countries over European quarrels, but by which colonial disputes were not settled. The latter had now become of such importance as to involve the mother-countries in a struggle for supremacy in North America. Nowhere was the boundary between New France and the British colonies clearly defined, but the chief regions in dispute were the northern part of Acadia and the valley of the Ohio River.

Boundary Disputes in Acadia.—The Treaty of Utrecht had declared Acadia to be British territory, but did not fix its limits. The French had previously claimed under that name the country from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Western Maine, as well as the peninsula now called Nova Scotia. They now said that they had ceded only the southern and western parts of the peninsula. The British insisted on the former application of the name. The French saw very clearly the importance of holding the disputed region north of the Bay of Fundy and along the southern shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. If it were to fall into British hands, communication, at least in winter, between Canada and the islands of St. John

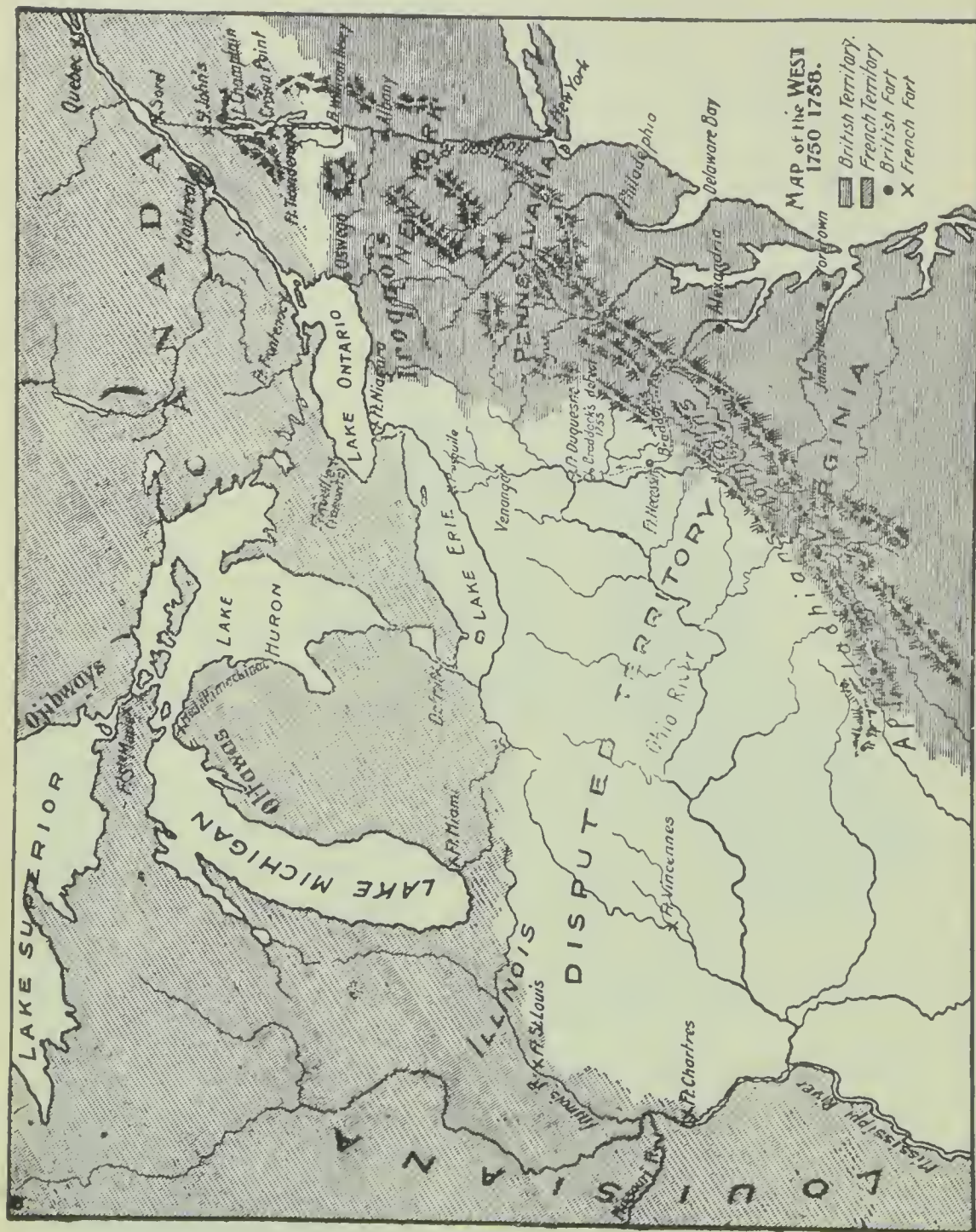
and Cape Breton would be cut off, and French supremacy in the Gulf would be seriously threatened.

The French, who hoped to regain some day the whole of Acadia, were much alarmed when, in 1749, the British government sent out 2,500 colonists under Edward Cornwallis to form a great military and naval station at Halifax. Le Loutre, the missionary among the Micmac Indians, was very active in the interests of the French. Largely through his influence the Indians were very hostile to the English. They prowled about Halifax and cut off small parties of the colonists at every opportunity. Le Loutre, acting on instructions from Louisbourg, warned the Acadians that the Indians would attack them, if they took the oath of allegiance on which Governor Cornwallis was now insisting. He persuaded many to leave their homes in the British territory south of the Bay of Fundy, and to settle in the disputed territory to the north, where they would be more under French influence. In this district the French had already built a strong fort, Beauséjour, to command the isthmus of Chignecto, where there were large Acadian settlements. In 1750 a British force from Halifax established Fort Lawrence a few miles south of Beauséjour. The Indians and Acadians under Le Loutre annoyed them with petty attacks, and on one occasion an officer was treacherously shot when going to meet a flag of truce.

The Ohio Valley.—The governor of New York long before this time had protested against the occupation of the West by the French, and the Iroquois had fought to prevent the fur-trade of the region from falling into their hands. Nevertheless, the French, as we have seen, maintained and strengthened their hold, and they now claimed that the whole Mississippi valley to the crests of the Appalachian mountains was theirs by right

of exploration and possession. The British maintained, on the other hand, that their territory was not limited by the mountains, but that each of their colonies owned the land west of its own settlements as far as the Mississippi at least. The key to the disputed territory was the valley of the Ohio. It extended far to the north-east, between the basin of the Great Lakes and the Appalachians, that is, between the British colonies and the lands acknowledged to belong to the French. Should the French gain it, they would confine the British to the narrow plain between the mountains and the Atlantic and would enjoy undisputed possession of the whole interior. If the British secured the valley, they would have an open route to the great regions of the West, and could easily break the long, slender line connecting Louisiana and Canada. The possession of the interior would decide, though neither yet realized it fully, whether the British or the French should be supreme on the North American continent.

Conflict in the Ohio Valley.—Although the commissioners appointed to settle the boundary disputes had barely begun their work, the French took formal possession of the Ohio valley in 1749. Traders from the British colonies, however, continued to cross the mountains to barter with the tribes beyond, and settlers were beginning to follow. The Indians, while friendly to the French, found the goods of the British much cheaper and better. In the end they would probably follow their usual way and join the stronger side. The interest of the British, therefore, required the establishment of a strong post on the Ohio to command the passage to the West. The colonial governments, however, were very slow in providing the money necessary to establish and maintain such a post.



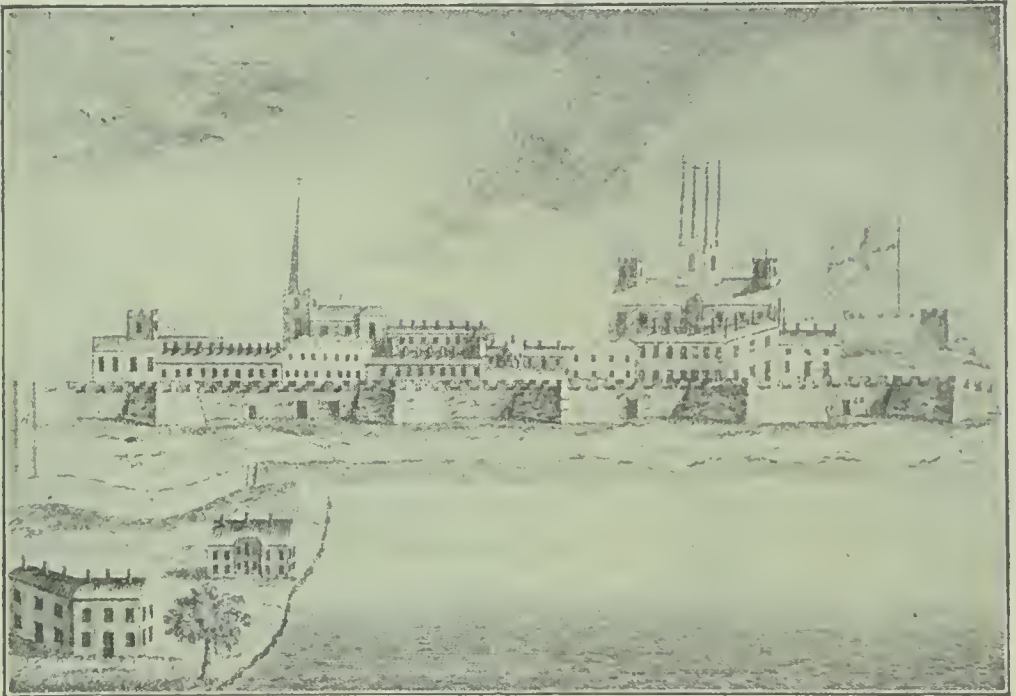
But while the British delayed, the French acted promptly. Duquesne, the governor of Canada, sent a strong force in 1753 to occupy with forts the portage between Lake Erie and the head waters of the Ohio. Alarmed by this move, Virginia now began to raise a regiment to send into the valley, and in the spring of 1754 she dispatched a small force in advance to entrench themselves at the spot where the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers unite to form the Ohio, and where Pittsburgh now stands. They had not finished their work when the French descended upon them from the north, captured them, and built a much stronger fort, which they named Duquesne. The main Virginian force was under George Washington, a young man of twenty-two, who had already given proof of high character and ability. When he heard of the advance of the French he entrenched himself at the western base of the mountains and gave his position the suggestive name of Fort Necessity. The French were soon upon him, and their superior numbers forced him to surrender.

These successes gave the French complete control of the Ohio valley for the time and secured for them the aid of the Indians. Such events meant war, although the actual declaration did not come until 1756. While the rivals are preparing for the struggle, let us compare their respective positions in America.

The Rival Colonies.—The British colonists now numbered 1,200,000, fifteen times as many as the French. The difference in wealth was even greater; for the former were very self-reliant and enterprising, and gathered much property and money from their farming, fishing, and trading. Many more things needful for the war could be procured in the British colonies than in Canada. Most of the supplies for the French armies

were still brought across the Atlantic, and during the war much was captured by the British, who were stronger on the sea.

But if the French were fewer and poorer than their rivals, they were more united. They were wholly under the control of their rulers. If the governor ordered



THE TOWN AND FORTIFICATIONS OF MONTREAL

them to march to the frontier, or to work on the fortifications, there was no hesitation or delay. Among the British, on the other hand, authority was “crumbled into little pieces.” Each of the thirteen colonies governed itself in most matters, and in the past they had seldom worked together with a common purpose. The Assemblies in all the colonies were jealous of the authority of the governor, who represented the Crown, and they were often very slow to carry out his wishes by voting money for the war. The greater promptness and activity of the French, therefore, won for them many successes,

until the colonial governments learned by hard experience the dangers of disunion.

Most of the fighting, especially in the first years of the war, took place in the great belt of hills and forests which protected Canada from her enemy. This was a great advantage to the French, for they could command the services of a much larger number of *coureurs de bois*, skilled in all the arts of forest warfare.

The Indians.—The French had always showed much kindness to the Indians and had gained great influence over them. The British, on the other hand, treated them with indifference and contempt. Most of the tribes, therefore, fought on the side of the Canadians. The Iroquois alone joined the British, but their strength had been greatly reduced by emigration and losses in war. Even they were divided, for French agents had won the favour of many, and the British did not receive much aid from them until the war was nearly over; even then the aid given was of no great value.

Defences.—The British frontier from Virginia to Maine lay, for the most part, exposed to the raids of French bushrangers and Indians. New York was partly protected by the Iroquois territory and by Oswego, a fort on Lake Ontario. Canada could be invaded by three routes, each presenting many obstacles. The way down Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence was defended by Niagara, Frontenac, and other posts, and was rendered very dangerous by many rapids. The pass through the mountains by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu was guarded by forts at Crown Point, Ile aux Noix, and afterwards at Ticonderoga; while the route from the sea up the St. Lawrence was barred by Louisburg and Quebec. Most of the events of the war were connected with one or another of these great waterways.

CHAPTER XI

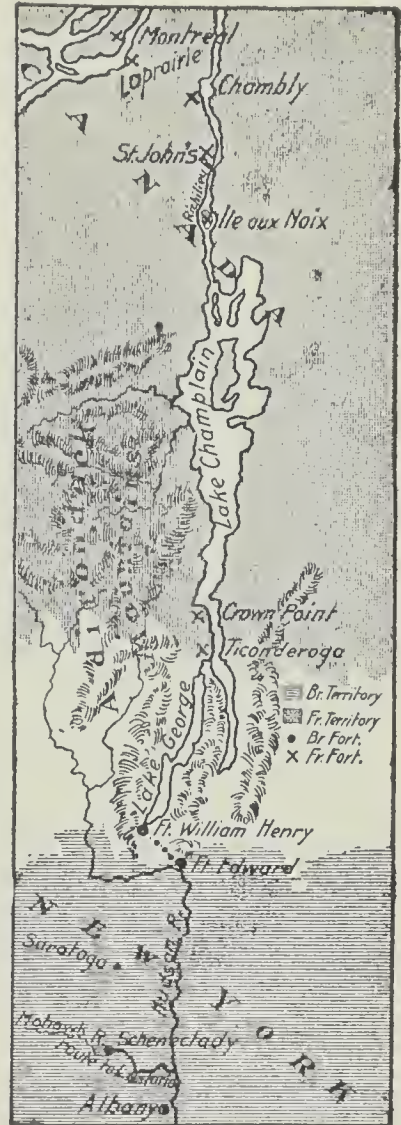
THE FRENCH HOLD THEIR OWN

British Plans for 1755.—Both French and British sent reinforcements to America early in the year. The British force was commanded by General Edward Braddock. He was an officer of experience and undoubted courage, but he was too proud and obstinate to take the advice of those who understood forest warfare better than himself. On his arrival he held a council of the colonial governors, and a plan for the campaign was agreed on. Braddock himself was to lead his regulars, with some companies of Virginian riflemen, to capture Fort Duquesne and drive the French from the Ohio valley. Edward Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, was to strike at Niagara. A colonial force raised by William Johnson in New York was directed to seize Crown Point and open the central route to Canada; while a fourth expedition under Robert Monckton was to take Fort Beauséjour, the key to the disputed territory in Acadia.

Braddock's Defeat.—Braddock's expedition was long delayed for lack of transport waggons. After their start, although they soon left their heavy baggage and many of their number behind, a month was consumed on the long, rough way over the mountains and through the forest. When within a few miles of Fort Duquesne, they were surprised by a force of nine hundred French and Indians. The British troops were at once drawn up in close lines after European fashion. Their scarlet uniforms made a plain target for the enemy, who poured in a murderous

fire from the shelter of rocks and trees. The British could make no effective reply, for hardly an enemy was to be seen. In spite of the gallant efforts of Braddock, Washington, and the other officers, the men huddled together in helpless confusion and were shot down by hundreds. At last Braddock, mortally wounded, gave the order to retreat. The survivors broke into headlong flight, leaving the cannon, baggage, three-quarters of the officers, and two-thirds of the men, on the field. The dying general, suffering terribly, was borne in a litter along with the flying army. "Who would have thought it!" he murmured. "We shall know better how to deal with them another time." In a few minutes he was no more.

Johnson at Lake George.—Colonel Johnson, the commander of the expedition against Crown Point, had no experience of war, but was shrewd and popular, and had much influence over the Iroquois, having married a sister of the famous Mohawk chief, Joseph Brant. He marched from Albany up the Hudson and crossed to the head of Lake George. In the meantime, the French did not wait for attack at Crown Point, but moved up Lake Champlain against the British. In their attack on John-



THE CHAMPLAIN ROUTE
BETWEEN NEW YORK
AND CANADA

son's camp at Lake George, however, they were driven back with severe loss, their leader, Baron Dieskau, being wounded and captured. Johnson did not follow up his victory by attacking Crown Point, but contented himself with building near the battle-field a strong fort which he called William Henry.

The Acadians Expelled.—In the meantime, Monckton had been successful in Acadia. Leaving Boston with two thousand provincials and a few regulars, he sailed up the Bay of Fundy and laid siege to Beauséjour. The fort, though strong, was feebly defended and was surrendered in a few days. The Acadians of the neighbourhood, spurred on by the priest, Le Loutre, had been active in petty attacks on the British from without, and Monckton detained in Beauséjour as many of them as he could lay hands on. Those living south of the Bay of Fundy had repeatedly refused during the summer to take the oath of allegiance, in spite of warnings as to the consequences. Governor Lawrence now resolved to remove the whole of them from the country.

At Grand Pré, Colonel Winslow gathered the men into the parish church to hear the decision of the governor. He kept them prisoners and shortly afterwards embarked them on board ships, with their families and as much of their household goods as could be carried. Similar measures were taken elsewhere, but not with the same success, for many escaped to the woods. The British authorities, much alarmed at the news of Braddock's defeat, did not wish to strengthen the French by sending the Acadians to Canada or Cape Breton, so they scattered the unfortunate exiles along the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts to Georgia. Most of them made their way to Louisiana or Canada, and some, in time, back to their native land. To-day their descendants form

a considerable part of the population of eastern New Brunswick and of some counties of Nova Scotia.

Shirley's Failure.—When Shirley's expedition against Niagara reached Oswego, it was found that the French had so strengthened their forces around Lake Ontario, that further advance was out of the question. Shirley decided to leave a strong garrison at Oswego and to return with the rest of his force to Albany. With his retreat the campaign closed for the year.

The Seven Years' War, 1756.—After the colonies in America had been fighting for a year, a great conflict began in Europe, usually called the Seven Years' War. Britain came to the aid of Frederick the Great of Prussia, when France joined Austria, Russia, and other countries in an attempt to crush him. France and Britain were opponents in India also, so that this mighty struggle for supremacy extended to three continents.



THE MARQUIS DE MONTCALM

Montcalm.—In May the Marquis de Montcalm arrived at Quebec to take Dieskau's place. For four years he led the French forces in Canada and fought with noble courage and devotion to save her from her fall. With him came Lévis and a number of other skilled officers, but few soldiers, as the king could not spare them from the war in Europe. The regular troops in Canada now

numbered six thousand and, with the militia and Indians, gave Montcalm a force large enough to attack the British with some hope of success.

Oswego Taken.—On the British side, affairs were in a bad way. The home government was weak and incapable, and chose officers on account of their social rank and family influence rather than for their merit. The Earl of Loudon, the new commander-in-chief, was no match for Montcalm. The colonial governments had not yet learned to work together, and everywhere there were confusion and delay.



BRITISH AND FRENCH SOLDIERS OF
THE TIME

Montcalm took prompt advantage of this state of things and made a sudden pounce on Oswego. The position was an important one, for from it the British carried on a profitable fur-trade in the lake region and could threaten the French line of communication with the West. There was a strong garrison, but the fort itself was so wretchedly weak that the French guns soon compelled it to surrender. The French, re-

lieved of anxiety for the West by this success, strengthened their forces on Lake Champlain. In addition to Crown Point they had now a new fort, Ticonderoga, at the

outlet of Lake George. Although Loudon had ten thousand men at the other end of the lake, he thought the French position too strong to attack and remained inactive to the end of the season.

Fort William Henry Falls, 1757.—When spring came, Loudon drew off most of the troops guarding the frontiers to take part in an expedition which he was planning against Louisburg. But the usual delays occurred and he got no farther than Halifax. Montcalm seized the opportunity to strike at Fort William Henry. He gathered over seven thousand men, including sixteen hundred Indians, at Ticonderoga and moved rapidly up Lake George. In a few days the British were forced to surrender. The garrison were allowed to march out with their arms, but with no ammunition. They had hardly started, when the Indians, maddened with rum and eager for scalps, fell upon them, tomahawked many, and carried off more in spite of the efforts of Montcalm to save them. This unfortunate affair caused intense anger throughout the British colonies, and the French were severely blamed for not providing a proper guard for the defenceless prisoners. Many of the captives were afterwards purchased from the Indians by the French and set free. Montcalm quickly destroyed Fort William Henry and returned in triumph to Ticonderoga.

CHAPTER XII

THE FALL OF NEW FRANCE

Pitt and His Plans.—The British people were very angry at the disasters of the past three years, and they saw no hope of better success, unless there were stronger



WILLIAM PITT

and wiser men in the council and in the field. They compelled the government to give the control of the war to William Pitt, one of the greatest of British statesmen. His courage, energy, and determination soon wrought a great improvement. As far as he was able, he placed in command of the expeditions planned for 1758 young and active men of his own spirit. Jeffrey Amherst was chosen as leader against Louisburg, the

capture of which was necessary before any attempt could be made against Quebec. James Wolfe, whose name stands high in the long roll of great British generals, was under him. John Forbes was to try to take Duquesne and wipe out the disgrace of Braddock's

failure. James Abercromby, made commander-in-chief in spite of Pitt's wishes, took charge of the expedition against Ticonderoga, where he was soon to prove his unfitness for any command.

Louisburg Captured.—The effects of Pitt's energy were seen everywhere. Before the end of winter British



LOUISBURG IN 1758

fleets sailed to blockade French ports, where aid was being prepared for Louisburg and Canada, and by June 1st Admiral Edward Boscawen and General Amherst were at Louisburg with all their forces. Wolfe led the advance party through the surf, over the low, craggy cliffs, and captured the French batteries that guarded the landing-places. In a short time the army was on shore. The guns were mounted, and the siege began. Louisburg was well provisioned and garrisoned. In the harbour was a strong fleet, but so severe was the fire directed upon them that many of the vessels were burned. After Wolfe had captured the batteries that guarded the mouth of the harbour, the French sank four of their ships at the entrance to keep out the British fleet; but a party of sailors, protected by the darkness, rowed

in, captured one of the two remaining vessels and burned the other. As the besiegers' trenches approached the walls of the fortress, the effect of the bombardment



SIR JEFFREY AMHERST

became more marked; the ramparts crumbled and, one by one, the French guns were silenced. On July 26th the French commander gave up the city, and with it the islands of Cape Breton and St. John. More than five thousand soldiers and sailors were taken prisoners. The people of the town were sent to France. After taking possession of a number of small French settlements on the shores of the Gulf of St. Law-

rence, Wolfe, whose health was poor, returned to England, while Amherst sailed with a strong force to join the army under General Abercromby.

French Victory at Ticonderoga.—That officer, “infirm in body and mind,” had already made his attack on Ticonderoga and had failed. Under him was Lord Howe, on whom Pitt depended for success, and while he lived all went well. But he was killed in a skirmish with a scouting party at the foot of Lake George, and at his death “the soul of Abercromby’s army seemed to expire.” In front of the fort Montcalm had built a breastwork of logs and earth, while the ground beyond was

strewn with tree tops with their branches sharpened to a point and turned outwards. These lines formed a perfect defence against musketry, but could easily have been swept with cannon mounted on the neighbouring heights. Although Abercromby was well supplied with artillery, he did not use it, but ordered a bayonet charge. The barrier proved impassable, and, although the men fought with the utmost stubbornness, attacking again and again, they were forced to retire at nightfall with a loss of nearly two thousand. There were thirteen thousand men left; but, instead of attacking next day under cover of artillery fire, Abercromby retreated in a panic to Fort William Henry.

The Fall of Frontenac and Duquesne.—The French victory at Ticonderoga was followed by severe losses farther west. In August, a British force under Lieutenant-Colonel John Bradstreet crossed Lake Ontario and surprised Fort Frontenac. Its garrison, too small to resist, surrendered at once. A number of vessels and vast quantities of supplies intended for the Indians and the western forts were also captured.

When the expedition from Virginia reached Duquesne, the garrison had fled after destroying the fort. It was rebuilt by the British and renamed Fort Pitt, afterwards Pittsburgh, from the great minister. This important success established British supremacy on the Ohio.

The Condition of Canada.—Throughout the year the condition of Canada grew more and more alarming. As most of the men were compelled to serve in the army, the fields were badly tilled and the harvests were scanty. Trade was stopped; British vessels cut off supplies from France, and the country was threatened with famine. Flour cost two hundred francs a barrel. In Montreal people were compelled to eat horse-flesh.

To make matters worse, François Bigot, the intendant, and most of the other officials of the colony had leagued together to enrich themselves at the expense of the people



JAMES WOLFE

and king. While there is no proof that Vaudreuil, the governor, shared in the prevailing corruption, he apparently did nothing to check it. Supplies, sent for the use of the troops, were reported lost at sea or taken by the British, and then sold to the king at two or three times the original price. Bigot compelled the farmers to give him their wheat at a very low rate, and, when famine threat-

ened, he resold it at an enormous profit. It is a satisfaction to know that, when the intendant and his fellow-thieves returned to France after the fall of the colony which they had helped to ruin, they were put on trial, punished, and compelled to return a part, at least, of their ill-gotten gains. Bigot, himself, was banished from France for life, and all his property was confiscated.

Wolfe.—The capture of Louisburg, Frontenac, and Duquesne in the previous campaign, prepared the way for an attack on the heart of Canada. Amherst, now commander-in-chief, was to advance by the Champlain route to Montreal, while Wolfe, whose services at the siege of Louisburg had been noted by the keen eye of Pitt, was chosen to lead the grand attack on Quebec itself. He was now in his thirty-third year and had served in the army from the age of fifteen. His long, lank, awkward figure and somewhat uninteresting face showed little of the dauntless courage and fiery spirit of the man. Al-

though his body was frail and often racked with intense pain, he never spared himself in the performance of duty, however difficult or dangerous it might be.

The expedition against Quebec consisted of eight thousand six hundred picked soldiers under the command of Wolfe, and a fleet of seventy-six warships and transports carrying eighteen thousand men under Admiral Charles Saunders. The warships mounted nearly two thousand guns. Saunders' instructions were to co-operate with Wolfe in every way, and these instructions be obeyed without question. The troops were landed at the end of June on the upper end of the Island of Orleans, and there Wolfe at first made his headquarters. As the commander gazed around him, he must have realized the tremendous difficulty of the task before him.

First Attempts. — Quebec, perched on its lofty rock studded with batteries, could not be attacked from the front. The approaches on either side were almost equally difficult. Above the city, steep cliffs everywhere lined the north



SIR CHARLES SAUNDERS

shore of the St. Lawrence, and the points at which they could be scaled were strongly guarded. To the eastward the banks were more accessible, but were everywhere fortified with earthworks and batteries. Here Montcalm took his stand with an army of sixteen thousand men, including regulars, militiamen, and Indians, his camp extending from the St. Charles River to the Montmorency, a distance of about eight miles.

The French general, trusting to time and the strength of his position, remained on the defensive throughout the siege. Wolfe, on the other hand, wished to bring on a general engagement, knowing that his opponent's troops, the majority of whom were militia from the farms and from the bush, were no match for his own seasoned veterans in open fight.

Shortly after his arrival, Wolfe sent a strong force under General Monckton to occupy Point Lévis and bombard Quebec from across the river. The British guns soon did great damage to the houses of the city,



QUEBEC IN 1759

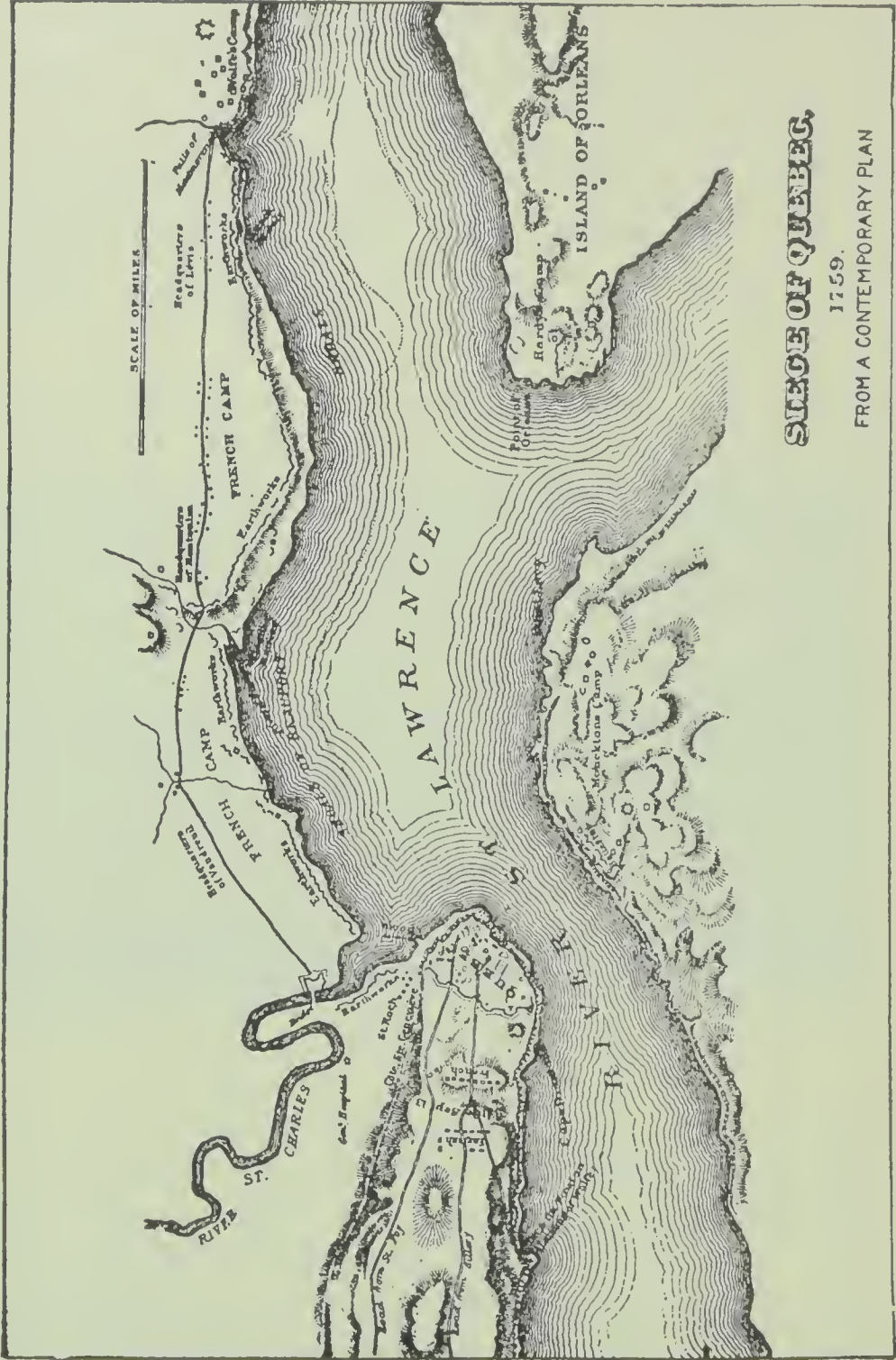
but did not hasten its capture. Wolfe himself, with another force, took up a position on the north shore of the St. Lawrence east of the Montmorency, in the hope of reaching the rear of the French army, but found the gorge of the latter stream too strong a barrier.

On the last day of July he resolved to attack Montcalm in his entrenchments, a little to the west of the mouth of the Montmorency. At this point the flats were bared at low tide for some distance from the cliff. The

first detachment to land from the boats rushed across this space, without waiting for orders or for the arrival of the main force under Wolfe, and seized a redoubt near the foot of the hill. Exposed now to a tremendous fire from the French above, they started to scale the cliff, but a thunderstorm, bursting just at that moment, quickly made the slippery slopes impassable. Wolfe, seeing that success would be too costly, withdrew his whole force.

Amherst on Lake Champlain.—In the meantime, Amherst was slowly making his way towards Canada by way of Lake Champlain. The French forces were too weak to resist and abandoned Ticonderoga and Crown Point on his approach. A further advance would have helped Wolfe by compelling the French to withdraw some of their troops from Quebec for the defence of Montreal. But Amherst waited until he had repaired the forts and had built vessels to meet the French naval force on Lake Champlain. Thinking that it was then too late in the season to proceed, he sent his army into winter quarters. While at Ticonderoga, Amherst heard that the force which he had sent to capture Niagara had been successful. By the fall of this important post, Canada was cut off from the West, and the way was now open for the descent of the St. Lawrence by British forces.

The Battle of the Plains.—Wolfe was greatly dejected by his defeat at Montmorency. Worn out by his labours and anxieties, he fell dangerously ill. For a time the British remained inactive. A number of warships, however, ascended the river past Quebec and checked the shipment of supplies for Montcalm's army from Montreal. While Wolfe was recovering, a council of his officers was held, and some one proposed to land



some distance to the west of Quebec and thus force Montcalm to fight. Wolfe adopted the plan in part, but chose for the daring venture a spot (since called Wolfe's Cove) much nearer the city. Here the plateau might be reached by a slight pathway which ran sloping up the cliff. More ships were sent up the river, and troops were secretly drawn from points below and placed on board. By September 12th all was ready.

At nightfall the fleet began a furious cannonade of the French positions at Beauport, and boats filled with sailors hovered about the shores as if ready to land. Montcalm, thinking that Wolfe's main force was still opposite him and was about to make its last attack, kept his own troops under arms all night.

Meanwhile, fortune favoured the British above. As Wolfe's boats dropped silently down the stream in the darkness, a French-speaking officer on board satisfied the sentinels on shore by saying that they were provision boats which, as deserters told Wolfe, the French were expecting that night. At the landing place all was silent. Led by twenty-four volunteers, the advance party stealthily made their way up the precipice and scattered the sleeping guard at the top. Montcalm, although deceived by Wolfe's tactics as to the real point of attack, had ordered one of his regiments to take a position on the Plains of Abraham for the defence of any threatened point above the city. It had, on the contrary, encamped for the night across the St. Charles, so that Wolfe was able to bring up his army of four thousand five hundred men in detachments and place them in battle array without opposition.

No message of Wolfe's successful move reached Montcalm, but, as he rode westward in the early

morning towards the St. Charles, he saw the red lines of the British on the plains beyond. He hastened on to Quebec, leaving orders that the troops from Beauport should follow at all speed. It is said that they were detained by Vaudreuil, who seldom worked in harmony with Montcalm and who feared an attack at that point. The governor of the city, too, refused Montcalm men and guns on the plea that he need-



THE DEATH OF WOLFE

From a Contemporary Print

ed them for his own defence. Nevertheless, a force of nearly five thousand men was gathered in front of the city by ten o'clock. Montcalm feared to wait for further aid, lest the British should be reinforced.

The French advanced, firing and shouting, their lines being thrown into disorder by the Canadians, who fell upon the ground to reload. Wolfe ordered his men to stand silent until the enemy were within forty paces. Then at the word of command their muskets rang out

as one piece, and then again. When the smoke lifted, the French column was seen to be broken and the ground strewn with dead and dying. Wolfe charged at the head of his men. He had been already wounded twice, and now a third shot passed through his breast and brought him to the ground. As he was carried to the rear some one cried, "They run, they run!" "Who run?" feebly demanded Wolfe. "The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere!" "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace!" returned the dying hero, and in a few moments he quietly breathed his last.

The French army was in headlong flight. Montcalm, striving to rally his men, was mortally wounded and died next morning within the city walls. Vaudreuil assumed command in the absence of Lévis. Although his forces greatly outnumbered the British, he retreated rapidly up the St. Lawrence. Thus left to its fate, Quebec surrendered to the British on September 18th: Shortly after, the fleet sailed for England, having on board the body of the dead conqueror. General James Murray, one of Wolfe's brigadiers, was left with a strong garrison to hold the city during the winter.

Attempt to Regain Quebec.—The British troops suffered severely from cold and sickness. They were unused to the cold, and their clothing was not suited to the climate. When spring came, Murray had only three thousand men fit for active duty. Lévis and Vaudreuil resolved to attack him before aid could arrive from England.

Leaving Montreal, they moved rapidly down the river, and at the end of April appeared before Quebec with more than eight thousand men. Murray rashly marched out to meet them, expecting to gain as complete a victory as Wolfe's. The fight took place near the village of Ste. Foye, a little to the west of the former battlefield.

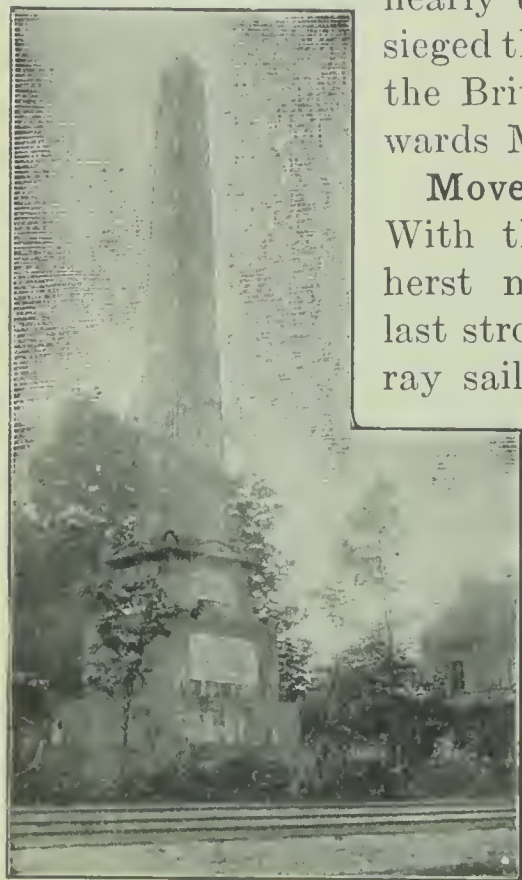
The Canadians, however, as well as the regulars, fought with such courage and dash that the British were driven back into Quebec with heavy loss of men and guns. For

nearly three weeks the French besieged the city, but on the arrival of the British fleet they retreated towards Montreal.

Movements against Montreal.—

With the return of summer, Amherst moved his forces against the last stronghold of the French. Murray sailed up the river and en-

camped on an island a few miles below Montreal. Haviland marched down the Richelieu, the French abandoning fort after fort at his approach. Amherst himself, with the main army, took the route of Lake Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence, so as to cut off a possible French retreat to the West. He descended the



MONUMENT TO WOLFE AND MONT-
CALM AT QUEBEC

river, losing eighty-four men on the way by drowning, and landed at Lachine on September 6th. When the other forces joined him in front of Montreal, Amherst had seventeen thousand men under his command.

Montreal and Canada Surrendered, 1760.—The Canadians, greatly discouraged by the failure to retake Quebec, deserted in great numbers to their homes during the summer. There now remained at Montreal only two thousand four hundred regulars, a force altogether too

small to oppose the army of the enemy. When Vaudreuil asked for terms, Amherst insisted on the unconditional surrender of the city and of all Canada. The French leaders were compelled to submit. It was pro-



vided that the officers and soldiers of the army should be sent to France in British vessels, on condition that they should not fight again in the present war; that the people of Canada should enjoy the privileges of British subjects, and that there should be no interference with

their property and their religion. A few of the seigneurs and merchants and most of the officials went to France; but the vast majority of the people, glad that the war with its hardships was over at last, resumed their quiet life under the new rulers. Until the treaty of peace, the affairs of the country were left in the hands of military officers, General Murray being the first governor.

The Treaty of Paris, 1763.—Elsewhere the struggle continued. Spain joined France in a last effort to overthrow the power of their rival, but both met with crushing defeats and losses. France, worn out by the long contest, sought peace, and in 1763 the Treaty of Paris was signed. France gave up all claim to Canada, Cape Breton, St. John's Island, and all the territory between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi. Amherst's terms to the Canadians were confirmed. Spain ceded Florida to Britain, while France rewarded her ally with the vast territory of Louisiana.

This treaty closed the mighty struggle between France and Britain for supremacy in North America. The heroic efforts of Champlain, of Frontenac and La Salle, and of Montcalm, to establish and maintain a French empire on this continent had ended in failure. The flag of France disappeared from the mainland, and she retained only the two tiny islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, off the south coast of Newfoundland, as fishing stations. Britain, her victorious rival, now held half the continent. In the West Indies and India also she had added largely to her possessions. She had gained the first place among the world's colonial and naval powers. To this glorious result three men largely contributed—William Pitt in England, James Wolfe in Canada, and Robert Clive in India.

CHAPTER XIII

EARLY BRITISH RULE

Pontiac's War.—When the British took possession of the western country, they found widespread dissatisfaction among the Indians, who disliked the British colonists for their rough, contemptuous manner towards them. They feared, also, that under the new rule settlers would pour in, seize their lands, and ruin their hunting grounds. This discontent was fomented by French traders and officers, who, before leaving, told the Indians not to submit to the British, as the French would soon re-occupy the country.

A confederacy of Algonquin tribes was organized by a famous Ottawa chief, Pontiac, to drive the British from the land. In April, 1763, eleven of the principal

forts of the region were attacked. All except Detroit and Fort Pitt were taken. In most cases the garrison were butchered. Colonel Bouquet, an officer skilled in forest warfare, marched with a strong force into the Ohio Valley, defeated the Indians of that region in a bloody



PONTIAC

fight near Fort Pitt and compelled them to make peace. Another army pushed its way up the lakes to the relief of Detroit, which had long been besieged by Pontiac. Failing to receive the hoped-for aid from the French, that chieftain gave up the struggle, and his followers quickly submitted to British authority.

The King's Proclamation.—In 1763 a proclamation of King George III was issued providing for the government of his new territories. Two provinces were created—Quebec, extending along the St. Lawrence from the Gulf nearly to Lake Ontario, and Nova Scotia, including the peninsula, together with Cape Breton, St. John's Island and the present province of New Brunswick. The western region was retained under the direct control of the British government, much to the disappointment of the people of the older colonies who wished to secure that rich territory for themselves. The seizure of Indian lands by colonists, or the pretended purchase of them from individual Indians, was strictly forbidden. Grants were to be made to settlers only after such lands had been ceded to the British government by the representatives of the tribe. This wise policy did much to reconcile the Indians to British rule and was the beginning of that honest and generous treatment, which has been continued in Canada with such good results to the present day.

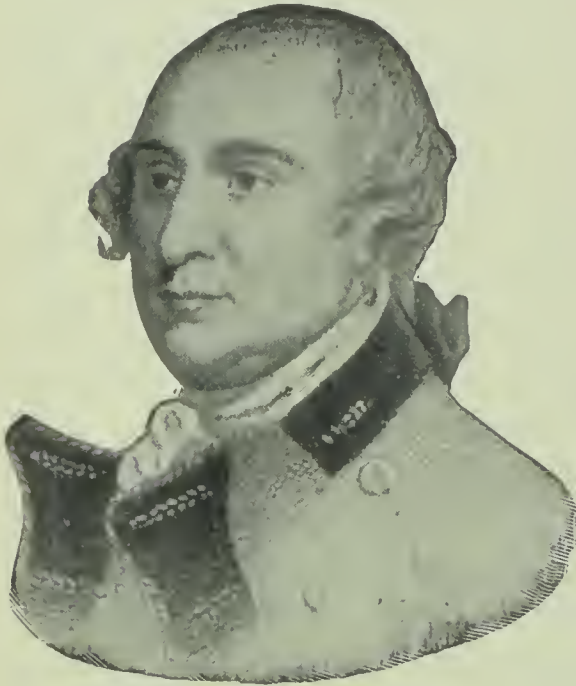
Discontent in Quebec.—In dealing with the government of the province of Quebec the proclamation was not so successful. It ordered that the law-courts should settle all cases brought before them "as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England." Now, English law was very different in many respects from the French law, especially with regard to property. The methods of trial also were unlike. The English people thought it

a great safeguard to justice and liberty that a dispute should be settled, or that an accused person could be condemned, only by "the lawful judgment of his peers," that is, by jury trial. The French were not so accustomed as the English to think and act for themselves, and to take a part in the government of the country. They preferred to have their cases settled by the decision of a judge rather than by the verdict of twelve of their neighbours. It can be easily understood how discontent arose when the new laws were enforced. So many were the difficulties, that the judges sometimes tried to improve matters by following the old law. But this only increased the confusion and uncertainty.

The English law of the time did not permit Roman Catholics to hold office. Consequently, the new judges and magistrates were of necessity British. Many of them were ill-fitted in both learning and character for their positions, and they were not likely, in any case, to command the confidence of a people of another race, religion, and language.

Nor was the discontent confined to the French-speaking Canadians. The new settlers, most of whom had come from New England, were very angry with Governor Murray for refusing to call upon the people to elect an Assembly like those which helped to govern the older colonies. He was, however, anxious that the French should be justly treated and thought it unfair that the newcomers, who did not number five hundred, should make the laws for the whole people, since the French, being Roman Catholics, would be excluded. In 1768 Murray was succeeded by Sir Guy Carleton, who had served under Wolfe in 1759. He, too, sympathized with the older inhabitants and did what he could to protect them from the injustice of the officials. Both parties appealed

to the home government. Carleton urged the necessity of restoring French law, at least in civil cases. The British government was the more willing to listen to



SIR GUY CARLETON

him and to satisfy the French-speaking Canadians, as there was danger of their joining the British colonies to the south, now on the verge of rebellion against the mother-country. The Parliament of Great Britain, therefore, passed an Act which made many changes in the government of Quebec.

The Quebec Act, 1774. — The principal changes made by this important Act were as

follows:—1. All civil cases, those relating to property, marriage, wills, etc., were to be decided by French law; criminal cases were to be tried by English law. 2. The petition of the British party in the province for an Assembly was not granted, but a Legislative Council was created to assist the governor in law-making; the members of this body were to be appointed by the king for life. 3. The Roman Catholic Church was to enjoy complete religious freedom; the clergy were given the legal right to collect tithes, that is, a twenty-sixth of the grain products of the land, Protestants, of course, being exempted; Roman Catholics were no longer to be prevented from holding public office; one-third of the members of the new Council were of that denomination.

4. The boundaries of the province were extended on the west so as to include all the new territory as far as the Ohio and the Mississippi. The object of this extension was to prevent the territory to the west of the Appalachian Mountains from falling into the hands of the colonies to the south, who were now laying claim to it.

The Quebec Act gave great satisfaction to the French-speaking Canadians by the removal of their real grievances. Their natural leaders, the clergy and the seigneurs, were convinced of the justice and fairness of the British government, and exerted their great influence over the common people in its behalf in the unavoidable struggle with the older colonies.

The French-Canadians.—The population of Canada, at the time of the signing of the Treaty of Paris, num-

bered in all about sixty thousand, of whom seven thousand resided in Quebec and nine thousand in Montreal. The remainder, with the exception of a few thousand



CANADIAN COSTUMES OF THE TIME

in Three Rivers and Detroit, were scattered along the banks of the St. Lawrence and other rivers. The *habitants* were much the same as they were at the time of the early settlements. They were a light-hearted people, working hard, men and women alike, in summer and taking life easy in winter. The men dressed in homespun, with gray leggings and cap, and cowhide moccasins,

the whole costume enlivened by a gay-coloured sash around the waist. The women also dressed in homespun, with a kerchief of many colours around the shoulders. Their houses were usually small, with two rooms separated by wooden partitions. Boxes served in place of



INTERIOR OF A FRENCH-CANADIAN FARMHOUSE

From a Painting by Krieghoff

chairs. The cradle and the loom were never absent. Their food in summer consisted chiefly of salt meat, bread, and milk, but in winter there was plenty of fresh meat. On festive occasions, of which the *habitants* were very fond, cake was added, and at all times maple-sugar was to be had. They were fond of visiting, singing, playing games, and dancing. Sociability was the very life of the French-Canadian.

Near the village, where lived his tenants, was the home of the seigneur. His house was generally but one story in height, but long and rambling, with a steep roof and attic bedrooms. Surrounding the house were the barns and stables, and in the rear the kitchen garden. Not

far distant was the seigniorial mill. Inside, the house was furnished comfortably, often luxuriously. In dress the seigneur wore much the same costume as a French gentleman of the period, richly-embroidered coloured frock-coat and waistcoat, knee breeches, silk stockings, and shoes with broad buckles. The costumes of the women were in keeping with those of the men. In winter both sexes wore out of doors much the same picturesque costumes as we see in the rural districts of Quebec to-day. The table of the seigniorial manor-house was always abundantly provided with luxuries, and guests were always welcome. The seigneur vied with the *habitants* in his fondness for amusements, although these were perhaps more refined than those which afforded his humble neighbours so much amusement. One of the great festive occasions was the hoisting of the May-pole on May-day before the house of the seigneur. Then the *habitants* were the guests of their landlord, and royally were they feasted.

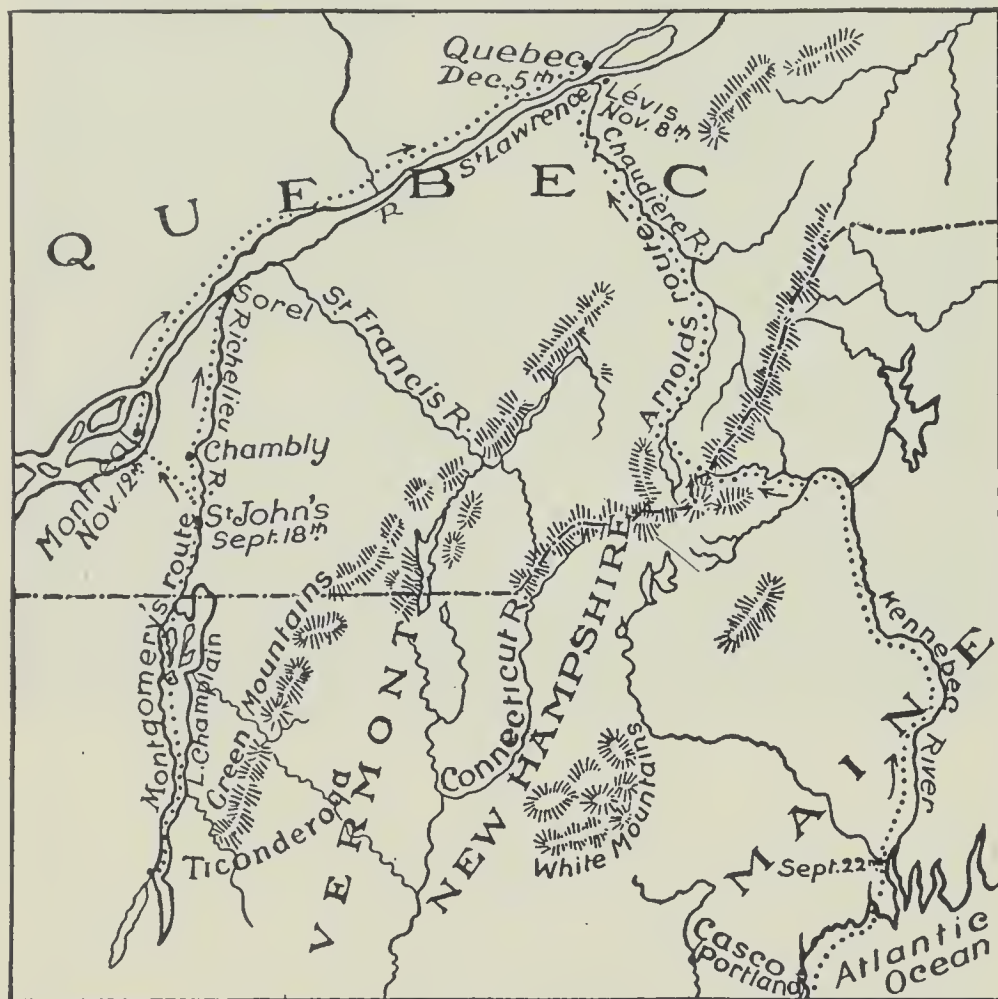
CHAPTER XIV

THE UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS

Canada Invaded by the Americans.—We have already noted the rapid growth of the American colonies in wealth and population, and have seen that they were allowed by Great Britain to manage most of their own affairs. So long as the power of France pressed upon their northern and western frontiers, they needed the aid of the motherland against that dangerous foe. But when, with that powerful aid, the French were driven from the continent, wise observers predicted that the colonists would soon feel strong enough to form an independent nation. This feeling for separation from the mother-country was hastened by the unwise policy of the British government. Finally, in 1775, the colonies rose in open rebellion, and their armies at once took the field. They had already invited the new provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia to join them in rebellion. In Quebec, especially, they hoped to overthrow British authority without difficulty. Most of the English-speaking population were immigrants from the older colonies, and many of them were in sympathy with the revolution. The agents of the Americans, who were very active among the *habitants*, reported that the French Canadians also would join them, if they would send an armed force into the province.

Accordingly, in 1775 two expeditions were prepared. Eleven hundred men under Benedict Arnold marched northward through the forests of Maine and down the

Chaudière River to Quebec. General Montgomery with three thousand men took the route of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu towards Montreal. This way had already been opened by the surprise and capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point in May. St.



John's was taken early in November and with it seven hundred men. Governor Carleton's position was now desperate. He had only two hundred regulars left and a few militia. The French clergy and gentlemen, indeed, grateful for the Quebec Act, were loyal to British rule; but the *habitants*, for the most part, did not side with either the British or the Americans. Carleton

was forced to leave Montreal to its fate, and, slipping through the American forces on the river below, he made his way to Quebec. Montreal was at once occupied by Montgomery. It remained in the possession of the Americans during the next seven months.

The Fifth Siege of Quebec.—Carleton expelled from Quebec all whom he suspected of disloyalty and, from the remaining citizens, gathered a force large enough to man the walls and batteries. Arnold had arrived before the city in November. Early in the following month he was joined by Montgomery from Montreal. The united force encamped on the Plains of Abraham. Their guns soon opened fire upon the town, but did little serious damage.

The American leaders now resolved on an attempt to surprise the lower town by a night attack. Before dawn on December 31st. 1775, Montgomery led a force from Wolfe's Cove eastward along the strand between the cliffs and the stream. Beneath Cape Diamond the narrow path was blocked by a barricade. The guard, consisting of about forty militiamen, was on the alert, but lay hidden until the enemy were only thirty yards distant. Then a sudden blast of cannon shot and musket balls smote the advancing column and turned it into headlong flight. Montgomery and a number of his officers and men were left dead on the road, where their bodies were found some hours later, half buried by the falling snow.

In the meantime, Arnold had with difficulty fought his way round from the St. Charles nearly to the foot of the pathway leading from the lower town to the upper. But his troops became entangled in the narrow streets, and, attacked in the rear, were glad to escape with a loss of three-fourths of their number, the leader

himself being severely wounded. The British lost six men.

The Retreat of the Invaders.—After this crushing defeat the Americans made no further attacks upon



THE CHATEAU DE RAMEZAY, MONTREAL, BUILT IN 1705

The residence of the French governors and the headquarters of the Americans in Montreal.

Quebec, although they kept up the siege throughout the winter. When the British fleet arrived in May with reinforcements, Carleton sallied forth. The Americans retreated in great haste, leaving their cannon and stores behind, and the general's dinner smoking-hot upon the table. The British forces, following up the river, re-occupied Montreal. By the end of June Canadian soil was cleared of the invaders.

Peace was signed between Great Britain and the rebellious colonies at Versailles in 1783. Britain acknowledged the independence of the thirteen colonies, thenceforth the United States of America. She also gave up to them

all the territory belonging to her east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes.

Departure from the United States.—Not all the colonists had supported the majority in the struggle with Great Britain. Many of them had from the first opposed the rebellion and had fought beside the British regulars for a united empire. As the war progressed, the hatred between them and their rebellious neighbours grew more and more bitter. In many cases their families were forced to seek refuge from persecution within the British lines. Even when peace was made, the feeling remained so strong that the victors were unwilling to treat the vanquished with generosity or justice. All loyalists who had borne arms were proclaimed traitors. In the Treaty of Versailles it was provided that the property of the loyal colonists which had been seized during the war should be restored to them; but the promise was not kept, and now many thousands of the wealthiest and best in the land found themselves reduced to beggary. Nothing remained for them but, either to return to Great Britain or to seek new homes in the forests of the north under the old flag, for the sake of which they had already suffered so much. The high officials, the wealthier merchants, the large land owners, and the military and professional men, for the most part, went to the old land, while the remainder, discouraged by misfortune but strong in their loyalty, set out for the northern colonies, where they were sure of a hearty welcome and kind assistance.

Settlement by the Sea.—The migration had begun as early as 1776 and had continued steadily through the following years, the larger number leaving the United States in 1783, after the conclusion of the war. Thousands of these settled at various points in Nova Scotia,

from Sydney in the east to Annapolis in the west. In the summer of 1783 twelve thousand of them founded the town of Shelburne on the Atlantic coast, but the soil was barren, and most of them finally settled elsewhere. Some found their way to St. John's Island, which had already become a separate province, and which was soon to be named Prince Edward Island, in honour of the Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria.

During the same year many settlements were made on the northern shores of the Bay of Fundy. The largest was at the mouth of the St. John River and was named Parrtown from Governor Parr of Nova Scotia. These Loyalists soon asked the privilege of choosing a member to represent them in the Assembly of Nova Scotia. When the governor refused, they petitioned the British government to combine the northern settlements into a new province. This request was readily granted, and in 1784 the province of New Brunswick was created. The first capital was Parrtown, the name of which was now changed to St. John. Two years later, the seat of government was removed to the village of Fredericton, farther up the river.

Settlements in the St. Lawrence Valley.—The Loyalists of the interior suffered great hardships as they made their way, with boats or pack-horses, to the British territory in the St. Lawrence Valley. One stream of emigrants followed the Champlain route and settled in the "Eastern Townships" of Quebec and along the banks of the St. Lawrence above Montreal. Another much-used line of travel was up the Mohawk and down the Oswego River to Lake Ontario, on the northern shores of which, and along the Niagara, thousands of Loyalists found homes.

Indian Loyalists.—Nor should we forget those brave

Loyalists of another colour—the Iroquois. Many of them, especially the Mohawks, had taken an active part in the war, and now, under the famous chief, Joseph Brant, they followed their white brothers to Canada.



CHIEF JOSEPH BRANT

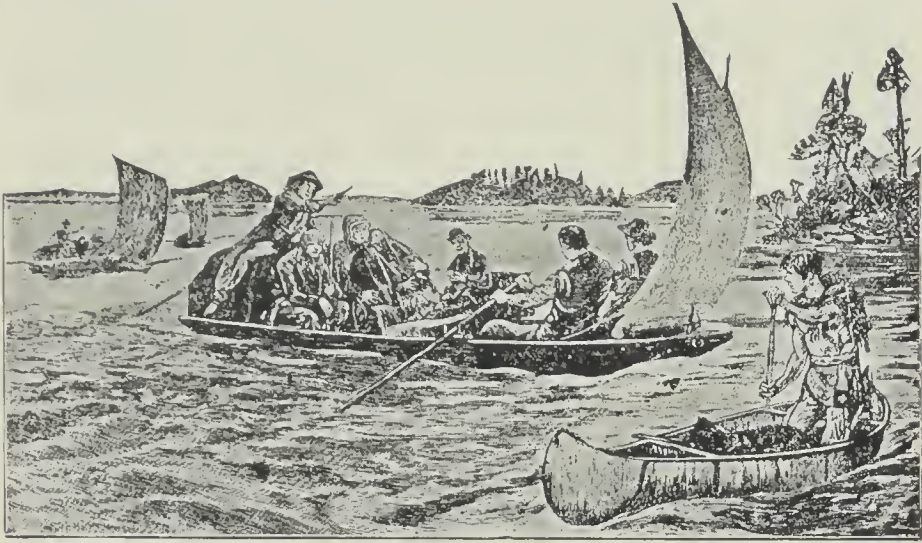
General Haldimand, who had succeeded Sir Guy Carleton, as governor, gave them grants of land along the Grand River. There in the county of Haldimand, so named from their benefactor, are to be found large settlements of their descendants. Farther up the river, the county of Brant and the city of Brantford commemorate the name of their leader.

Government Aid.—

Great Britain was ready to give liberal aid to her

sons who had sacrificed so much to maintain the unity of the empire. Free lands were granted to each settler. Commissioners were appointed to examine the claims of those who had lost their property. Finally, nearly nineteen million dollars was paid them in compensation. The enquiry, however, took time, and, meanwhile, the new-comers in Canada were in need of all things. The government supplied them with axes and spades—sometimes with a cow and a plough—and provisions until the new soil would yield its crops. The total number of Loyalists settling in the British provinces at this time was about fifty thousand.

In 1789 Lord Dorchester decided "to put a Mark of Honour upon the families who had adhered to the unity of the empire and joined the Royal Standard before the Treaty of Separation in 1783." All loyalists were "to be distinguished by the letters U. E. affixed to their



CHOOSING A SETTLEMENT ALONG THE ST. LAWRENCE

names, alluding to their great principle, the unity of the empire." Little was done, however, to register the names of these entitled to such a distinction until Colonel Simcoe, the governor of Upper Canada, interested himself in completing the registration. An accurate list was obtained, and that list may be had to-day.

Life in the Early Loyalist Settlements.—Many of these United Empire Loyalists were gentlemen of rank and wealth, but the majority were farmers and mechanics. The hardships of their pioneer life in the Canadian woods were vastly different from the comforts of their former lot. The first labour in the new home was to clear away the heavy trees and to prepare a patch of ground for the necessary crop of grain. The brush was burned to fertilize the soil with its ashes, and some of the trunks were used in the building of their rude cabins.

The logs were laid one on top of another and fastened together at the four corners, the chinks between being stuffed with moss and mud. Such a house would contain a single room, door, and window. Stoves were



A LOYALIST'S CABIN

unknown, but at one end a huge fireplace was built of unhewn stones, the chimney being often made of tree-trunks plastered with clay.

Furniture was of the simplest and scantiest. Platforms, strewn with balsam boughs, served for beds; or, perhaps, frames with strips of tough basswood bark stretched across. A rough table and a chair or two would be added, when outdoor labours permitted a little leisure to the overworked pioneer.

Yet amidst such humble surroundings there might often be found the relics of former wealth and refinement;—mantel-pieces of dark old oak or mahogany, richly carved; tall “grandfather’s clocks” solemnly ticking in the corner, borne with infinite trouble from former homes; or some family heirloom of silver plate, in strange

contrast with the rough board on which it stood. The opening of the huge wooden chests might reveal rich gowns of brocaded silk and lace, and no less gorgeous coats and knee-breeches of velvet and satin in green or blue or garnet.

But these fine garments would appear only on grand occasions; everyday clothes were of very different style. The poor were often glad to dress themselves in deer-skins until flax could be grown, spun, and woven; for the poorest of cottons, carried through the woods in pedlars' packs, cost two or three dollars a yard. Wool was for years hard to get, it being almost impossible to rear sheep on account of the scarcity of suitable pasture and the abundance of wolves. Even cattle had to be carefully guarded against these savage animals, and we read of their owners tying them to the cabin door at night and in the daytime taking them to where they themselves worked in field or forest.

In these first years, food was often scarce and many would have starved but for the meagre aid from the government. In the year of its withdrawal, known as the "Hungry Year," the crops failed everywhere in the region around the Great Lakes, and the following winter and spring was a time of great distress. Women and children scattered through the woods to gather nuts of different kinds. Basswood buds were boiled with various wild herbs. Game was fairly plentiful, but the means to take it were often wanting. Unsavoury soup was made of coarse bran, and in one district we are told that a beef-bone was passed from family to family, that each pot might get a little of its flavour. One man offered his farm for a fifty-pound bag of flour—and was refused. Fortunately an abundant harvest in the autumn relieved the suffering, and in time these

sturdy colonists grew prosperous. In the Maritime Provinces conditions were somewhat easier, for earlier settlers had there prepared the way.

Much the same were the experiences of all the early pioneers in Canadian forests, whether Loyalists or immigrants from the motherland. And it is well that the Canadians of to-day should cherish the memory of their fortitude and heroism with honour and gratitude, remembering that trials and hardships, bravely borne, strengthen the life of a nation, and that of the fruits of their unwearied labours we are now reaping an abundant harvest.

CHAPTER XV

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT

Political Discontent.—It was natural that men of the character and education of the Loyalists should take an active interest in the public affairs of their adopted country. Many of them had played an important part in the government of the old colonies, and, although they had not joined the popular side in the revolution, they firmly believed that the people should have a voice in the making of laws and the levying of taxes. They began to demand an Assembly elected by popular vote, such as had been already established in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Moreover, they did not like the French civil law. The French-Canadians, of course, were strongly opposed to any change in this respect, but they were now eager for an Assembly to which Roman Catholics as well as Protestants might be elected.

Discontent grew deeper. After an absence of eight years, Sir Guy Carleton, now Lord Dorchester, was in 1786 again appointed to the governorship of Quebec, the occupant of which office was from that time to act as Governor-general of all the British American provinces. He was a warm friend of both the Loyalists and the French-Canadians. With his assistance the government of Great Britain, anxious that there should be no further disturbance in the colonies which remained to the Crown, prepared the Constitutional Act and passed it through the Imperial Parliament in 1791.

Terms of the Constitutional Act.—The old province of

Quebec was divided into two—Upper Canada with a population wholly English-speaking, and Lower Canada where the French-Canadians were in a vast majority. The government of each province was to consist of a governor appointed by and representing the king, an Executive Council, and a Legislature. The Legislature was composed of two parts—a Legislative Council, the members of which were appointed by the king for life, and a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people for a term of four years. The members of the Legislative Council were in name appointed by the king, but generally on the nomination of the governor. They were chosen, for the most part, from the leading professional men and merchants of the province, even judges being included. The Executive Council, whose duty it was to advise the governor, was really selected by him. Its members usually belonged also to the Legislative Council and were in no way responsible to the Assembly.

To each Legislature was given the power of fixing the laws for its own province. Thus the vexed question of French law or English was settled. In Upper Canada English law was at once established, while no change was made in Lower Canada, the French having become well satisfied with English criminal law, as established by the Quebec Act. The seigniorial method of ownership of land, of which the French-Canadians were so fond, was retained in Lower Canada, although those who wished could hold their land by the freehold system. In Upper Canada the freehold system was alone to be used. The rights conferred upon the Roman Catholic Church by the Quebec Act were confirmed in Lower Canada, while one-seventh of all the uncleared Crown lands in both provinces was set apart for the use of the Protestant Clergy.

The Constitutional Act was a step in the direction of self-government, as the people, through the Assemblies, had now a voice in law-making and taxation. Yet the main power remained with the governor. His consent was necessary to the passing of laws, and their enforcement was wholly in his hands. Further, it should not be forgotten, that Great Britain continued to regard Upper and Lower Canada as mere colonies of the Crown. The British Navigation Laws were enforced in Canada, and the British government still collected duties and certain taxes. They also retained the right to appoint and to dismiss all public officials, although this right was exercised usually on the recommendation of the governor. Sometimes, however, they appointed and dismissed officials without consulting the governor and at least on one occasion dismissed the governor himself.

The First Legislatures in Upper and Lower Canada.—

The population of Upper Canada was now about twenty thousand. The capital was Newark, a little village at the mouth of the Niagara, and there the first Legislature met in 1792. It quickly got to work, and a great deal of public business was quietly transacted within five weeks.

Colonel John Graves Simcoe, who had commanded a Loyalist regiment in the war, was the first governor of Upper Canada. He was very active in the interests of the province, opening up roads and promoting immigration. He welcomed with open arms settlers from the United States, particularly Loyalists who had been unable to leave their homes across the border, and settled them upon lands given as a free gift from the Crown. Some of the most important roads in Upper Canada were built while he was governor. Before he left, in 1796, the capital was removed from Newark, as it was commanded by the guns of a United States fort across the Niag-

ara River. A spot on the north-western shore of Lake Ontario, where there was a fine harbour, was chosen in its stead. Here Simcoe founded the town of York. In 1834 its ancient Indian name of Toronto was restored.

In Lower Canada there were now nearly 130,000 people. Those of British origin lived principally in the towns and along the southern border. The French-Canadians were prosperous and, in the main, contented under British rule. Trade was brisk, taxation was light, and unpaid labour on public works was no longer exacted of



JOHN GRAVES SIMCOE

them as in the days before the conquest. The first Legislature met also in 1792. Out of a membership of fifty in the Assembly, about one-third were English-speaking, and its first act was to elect a French-Canadian as Speaker, or presiding officer. It also decided that debates might be conducted, and that records must be kept in the French language as well as in the English.

Political Strife.—Almost from the very beginning in both Lower Canada and Upper Canada the Assemblies were engaged in disputes with the governor and the Legislative and Executive Councils. Neither of the Councils was in any way responsible to the Assembly, which represented the people, and, even though the Assembly could pass laws and impose taxes, the enforcement of these laws and the collection of the taxes were in the hands of the governor and the Executive Council. Then, too, the people bitterly objected to the frequent interference of the British government in matters

which, they considered, were purely the concern of the colonies themselves.

In Lower Canada the French-Canadian majority in the Assembly complained that the governor appointed far too many councillors and officials from the English-speaking Protestant minority. They demanded that judges should be excluded from the Councils, and that the Executive Council should give account of its expenditure of public money before it asked the Assembly to vote more. The strife, embittered by the enmity of rival



YORK (TORONTO) IN 1803

newspapers, grew so fierce that on one occasion the governor suppressed a leading newspaper and imprisoned some of the members of the Assembly. In Upper Canada, there were questions of neither race nor religion to disturb the relations between the Assembly and the governor. There was, however, a strong demand on the part of the Assembly to control entirely the public revenue and taxation of the colony, a demand which was stoutly resisted by the governor and his advisers. In Upper

Canada, also, the governor still insisted, in spite of the opposition of the Assembly, on appointing judges to the Councils. The colonies by the Atlantic—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island—were faced with much the same problems as the people of Upper and Lower Canada. This was the state of affairs in 1812, when the outbreak of war between Great Britain and the United States put an end for a time to political strife.

Material Progress.—In the chapter dealing with the United Empire Loyalists we have already pointed out some of the hardships of pioneer life in Upper Canada. The greatest difficulty with which the settlers had to contend was the absence of good roads. Road-making, however, was steadily carried on, so that at the end of this period the settlers had much less to complain of in this respect than they had had at the beginning. In summer, of course, the waterways were made use of for the carrying of supplies.

More and more of the forest was being cut down and the land made available for farming. In fact, the farmers were, by 1812, growing so much grain and raising so many cattle and hogs that they were fairly well able to supply the needs of the small towns and villages that were springing up all over the province. The potash industry, of which we have already spoken, was gradually falling off, but the fur-trade still continued to yield large returns.

CHAPTER XVI

THE WAR OF 1812-14

Causes.—Although most of the fighting in this war occurred on the soil of Canada, she had done nothing to provoke it. To understand its causes we must turn to the great contest between Britain and Napoleon, the emperor of France. This ambitious conqueror, successful everywhere else, had failed to bring Britain under his power.



QUEENSTON IN 1812

He now sought to cripple the “mistress of the seas” by striking at her trade, the great source of her wealth. In 1806 he issued the Berlin Decrees, excluding her merchandise from France and the countries under her control, and ordering the seizure of the ships of any nation which touched at British ports. Britain replied by the Orders-in-Council, forbidding neutral countries to trade with those countries under Napoleon’s power. The chief sufferer from these decrees and orders was the United

States. Hundreds of her vessels were captured, more of course by the British than by the French. There was, therefore, the greater bitterness felt towards the former, a bitterness intensified by the claim which the British made to the right of search in American ships for deserters from the royal navy, and by the unnecessary harshness with which the search was often carried out.

The British government finally withdrew the Orders-in-Council, but, before the news reached the United States, war had been declared by the president.

The Condition of Canada.—The declaration of war found Canada ill-prepared. Her frontiers lay exposed to invasion for twelve hundred miles. To guard them there were only four thousand five hundred British regular soldiers in the country, although others arrived from time to time. Britain was making the utmost exertions to resist Napoleon and could spare few additional soldiers or ships to meet the new foe in America. Canada must rely mainly on her own people to meet the invaders.

The total population of the British-American provinces was about four hundred thousand—one-fifteenth that of the United States. But the spirit of the people rose with the danger. The provincial Legislatures voted large sums of money, and volunteers flocked to enlist in such numbers that the supply of arms was soon exhausted. The Loyalists, especially in Upper Canada, had not forgotten the treatment they or their fathers had received from the Americans during and after the Revolutionary War, while the French-Canadians, remembering all the kindness of the British, were equally prompt in enlisting for service. The people of the Atlantic provinces were untouched by the war, save for the occasional raids of privateers, but sent aid in men and money to their brothers in the west.

The brunt of the attack was to fall on Upper Canada. Her population was under eighty thousand. Many were recent immigrants from the United States, whose loyalty to the new flag was not above suspicion. But the old spirit of the United Empire Loyalists was still strong; and, if the forces were few, they were under the command of one of the bravest and ablest leaders of the war, Major-General Isaac Brock. Coming to Canada in 1802 as colonel of his regiment, he was now acting governor of the upper province. With foresight keener than that of the Governor-general, Sir George Prevost, or of the British government, he had judged that war was certain; and, when it came, he was prepared as far as his limited means would allow. The people caught some



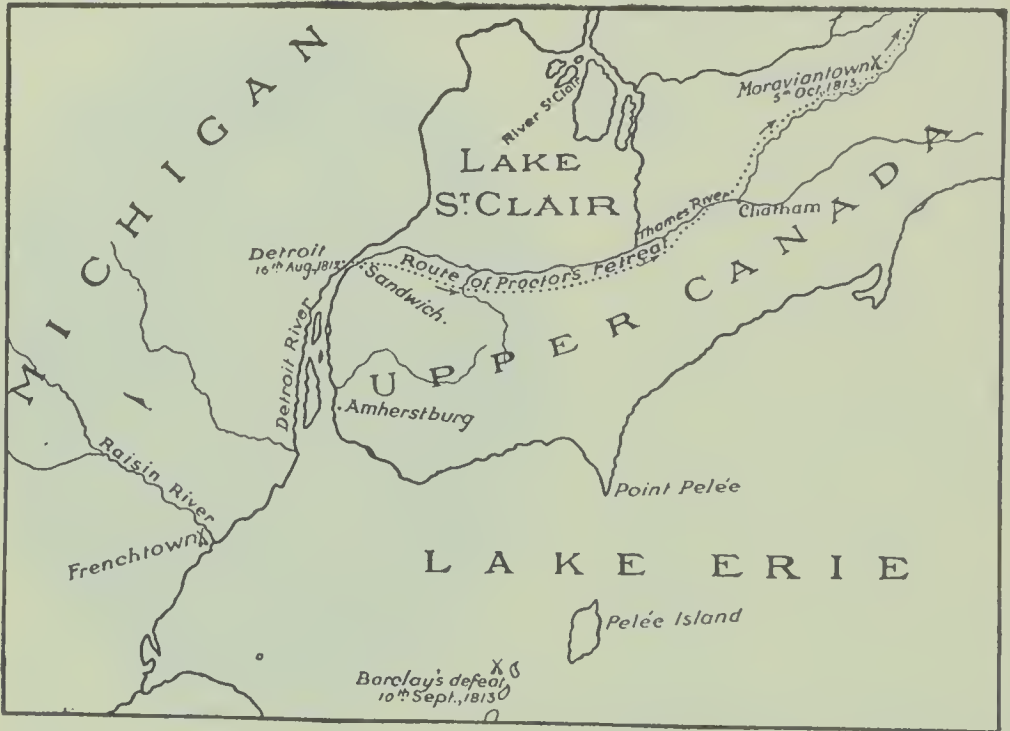
SIR ISAAC BROCK

of his energy and enthusiasm, and took fresh courage. Unlike many regular officers, he appreciated the true value of the untrained militiamen who flocked to his standard, and his frank and kindly bearing won the hearts of all the men under his command.

The Campaign of 1812.—The most important land events of each campaign of the war group themselves around the regions where Canada could be most easily attacked—in the west, around Detroit; in the centre, along the Niagara; and in the east, along the St. Lawrence

and the lower Canadian frontier to the Richelieu. Eastward of that river no invasion was attempted, partly owing to the savage wilderness along the boundary, and partly to the decided opposition of the New England people to the war.

On the news of the declaration of war, Brock sent orders to the British force on the island of St. Joseph to



THE DETROIT FRONTIER, 1812-14

attack the important American post of Michilimackinac, the key to the entrance of Lake Michigan and the centre of the north-western fur-trade. It was yielded without resistance, the garrison being quite unprepared and ignorant of the outbreak of war. This early success confirmed the loyalty of the Indians to the British, and many of them took arms against the Americans. Of these Indian allies the most notable leader was Tecumseh, chief of the Shawnees. He was a warrior of great courage and skill, and had remarkable influence over his

own and other tribes. Humane and honourable himself, he set his face sternly against the usual cruelties of Indian warfare.

After a brief incursion of American forces at Detroit into Canada under General Hull, Brock boldly resolved to attack the enemy. With a force of thirteen hundred men, three-fourths of whom were militia and Indians, he crossed the river south of Detroit in order to cut off their communications. When he advanced to attack the town, Hull, whose provisions were running short, surrendered almost before a blow had been struck. Two thousand five hundred men and thirty-three cannon were thus given up, together with Detroit and the whole territory of Michigan. The news of this unexpected victory was received with unbounded joy throughout Canada, and Brock's name was on every lip. For his victory at Detroit he was honoured by the king with knighthood.

The British government hoped that, since the Orders-in-Council had been recalled, peace might now be arranged, and with their approval Sir George Prevost made an ill-advised truce with General Dearborn, the American commander-in-chief. The truce completely disarranged Brock's plans for an invasion of the United States, but he was compelled to wait for a decision. The American government, however, rejected all proposals, and the fighting continued.

The Americans now prepared for a second invasion of Canada from Lewiston, on the Niagara. Brock had but fifteen hundred men scattered along the entire frontier of thirty-six miles. He himself with the main force was at Fort George where he expected the American attack to be made, while at Queenston, opposite Lewiston, there were only a few companies of regulars and militia.

Before dawn on October 13th, a strong party of the enemy crossed the river and occupied the heights that stretch westward from Queenston. When Brock came galloping up from Fort George at dawn, he ordered an attack, but was shot dead while leading the charge. Later the attack was renewed under Colonel Macdonnell, Brock's aide. Again the leader's death meant



THE NIAGARA FRONTIER, 1812-14

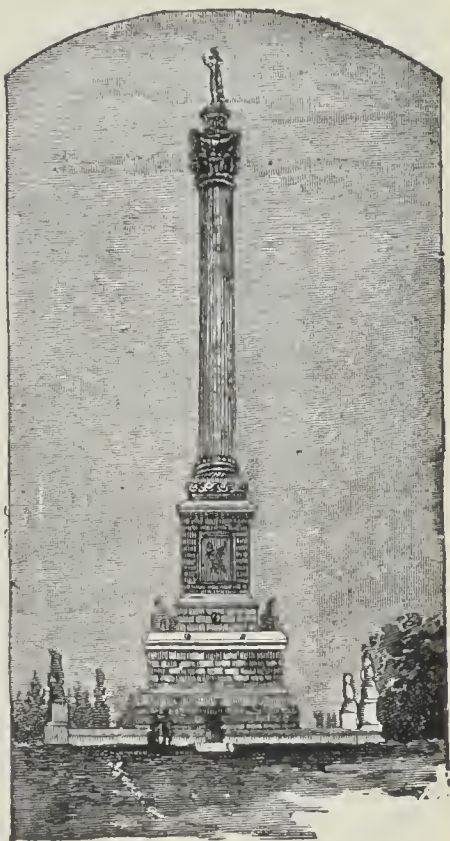
failure. The Americans had now been largely reinforced, and the British waited for the coming of their main force from Fort George. It arrived shortly after noon, led by General Sheaffe. Not wishing to climb the Heights in face of the enemy, he made a wide detour to the west and approached them on the upper level. The troops were burning to avenge the death of their beloved general and charged fiercely with the bayonet. The Americans were driven in headlong flight over the cliffs. Some escaped across the river, many were drowned in the at-

tempt, but most of them surrendered at the river brink. At the close of the day Sheaffe had a thousand prisoners of war on his hands.

It was indeed a glorious victory, but rejoicing in Canada was everywhere clouded with grief for the loss of Brock. He did not live to win the victory, but he gave his life for the country he had served so well. The grateful remembrance of that service by the Canadian people is recorded by the tall column which marks his last resting place on Queenston Heights. Thus closed the campaign of 1812, unmarked by a single success of the Americans in their attempts to conquer their northern neighbours.

The Campaign of 1813.—During the cold and storms of winter prolonged campaigning was not possible. The British made occasional raids on frontier posts, which did some damage but secured no important results. The Americans made active preparations for the spring, building vessels on the Great Lakes, strengthening their armies, and changing their leaders.

Although the British were greatly hampered by lack of supplies both of food and ammunition, the first engagements of the campaign of 1813 were largely in their favour. During the winter Colonel Macdonell, a brother of Brock's aide who had been killed at Queenston Heights,



BROCK'S MONUMENT AT
QUEENSTON HEIGHTS

crossed the St. Lawrence on the ice and captured Ogdensburg. Colonel Procter, who was in command at Detroit, made a sudden attack on the American forces at Frenchtown and captured the American general with his entire force. On Lake Ontario, however, the Americans were able to hold their own. Their fleet, moving from Sackett's Harbour, made an attack on York, the capital of Upper Canada. The town was bravely defended, the British losing over two hundred men, but they were compelled to retreat before superior forces. The Americans burned many of the public buildings of York before abandoning the town. The fleet then re-crossed Lake Ontario and drove the British from Fort George, at the mouth of the lake. By this victory the enemy secured control for a time of the whole Niagara frontier.

As the British retreated westward from Fort George, they were followed by three thousand five hundred Americans. On June 5th the enemy encamped for the night at Stoney Creek. A party of British crept cautiously forward through the darkness and fell suddenly upon the sleeping camp. The Americans fled in confusion, leaving a number of guns and prisoners, including both generals, in the hands of the victors. This stroke greatly discouraged the invaders and they retreated to Fort George, abandoning the most of the Niagara peninsula again to the British.

Another equally brilliant success soon followed. The advanced post of the British lines was at Beaver Dams, under the command of Lieutenant FitzGibbon. The Americans planned a night march from Fort George to surprise and capture his little force. Their purpose became known to Laura Secord, while her husband, a Canadian militia officer, was lying wounded at Queenston. She volunteered to carry a warning to the British com-

mander through twenty miles of tangled forest. She delivered her message, but FitzGibbon had already been warned by his scouts and had prepared an ambush for the enemy. The Americans arrived only to surrender. More than five hundred men yielded up their arms to a force not half their own number. The invaders were now confined to the triangle between Lake Ontario and the lower Niagara, and there they remained till the close of the campaign.

The British hold on the district around Detroit depended on their naval superiority on Lake Erie, since by that route alone could troops and supplies be sent to the west. They had a number of vessels upon the lake under the command of Captain Barclay, a brave officer who had fought under Nelson, but they were poorly supplied with trained sailors and proper cannon. The American fleet, under Commodore Perry, on the other hand, was well equipped and strongly manned by the crews of the ocean vessels now blockaded in the Atlantic ports by the British. In a fierce battle fought at Put-in Bay, near the western end of the lake, in September, Barclay was defeated and his whole fleet captured.

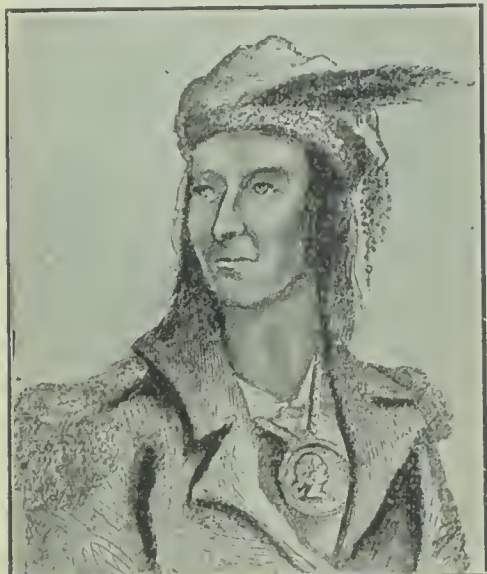
The small force at Detroit under Colonel Procter and Tecumseh now retreated up the Thames. The enemy pursued with five thousand men. Procter was soon overtaken. He turned to face them at Moraviantown, about forty miles below the present city of London.



LAURA SECORD

Taken in old age for the Prince of Wales

His little force of regulars was soon swept away by the charge of the enemy. The Indians were next attacked, but they resisted stubbornly and gave way only after Tecumseh and many of his followers had been slain. The rest made no attempt to rejoin Procter, and that unfortunate officer was able to muster only two hundred and fifty of his whole force when, after much hardship and suffering, they at last reached Burlington Heights.



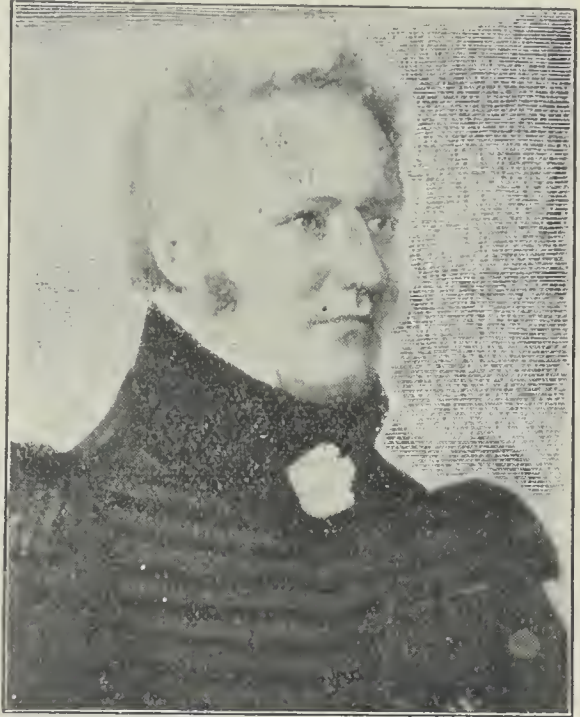
TECUMSEH

The Americans also planned to capture Montreal and so cut off Upper Canada from the sea. Two expeditions were prepared for the purpose. One under General Wilkinson was to move down the St. Lawrence; the other under General Hampton was to follow the River Chateauguay and join Wilkinson before Montreal. On October 26th Hampton came upon the advance guard

of the Canadian force at Chateauguay under Colonel De Salaberry and Colonel Macdonell. The British position was skilfully chosen, and by clever strategy the two commanders convinced the Americans that they were facing a much larger force than they had supposed. Hampton gave the order to retreat and soon withdrew into American territory. Wilkinson on his part was slow to start. Then he stopped to brush aside a small British force that was following him down the St. Lawrence. But his troops met with a sharp defeat and heavy loss at Crysler's Farm. On receiving the tardy news that Hampton had failed more than two

weeks before, Wilkinson abandoned the expedition and retired to winter quarters.

The Campaign of 1814.—In the spring the Americans determined upon another invasion of Lower Canada, but their army of four thousand men under General Wilkinson was signally defeated at La Colle Mill, on the little River La Colle, a tributary of the Richelieu. The defenders, only five hundred in number, showed such spirit that the Americans retreated across the border. Later the British captured Oswego and burned the fort, but soon after they suffered a reverse at Sandy Creek, with a loss of two hundred men. In the early summer

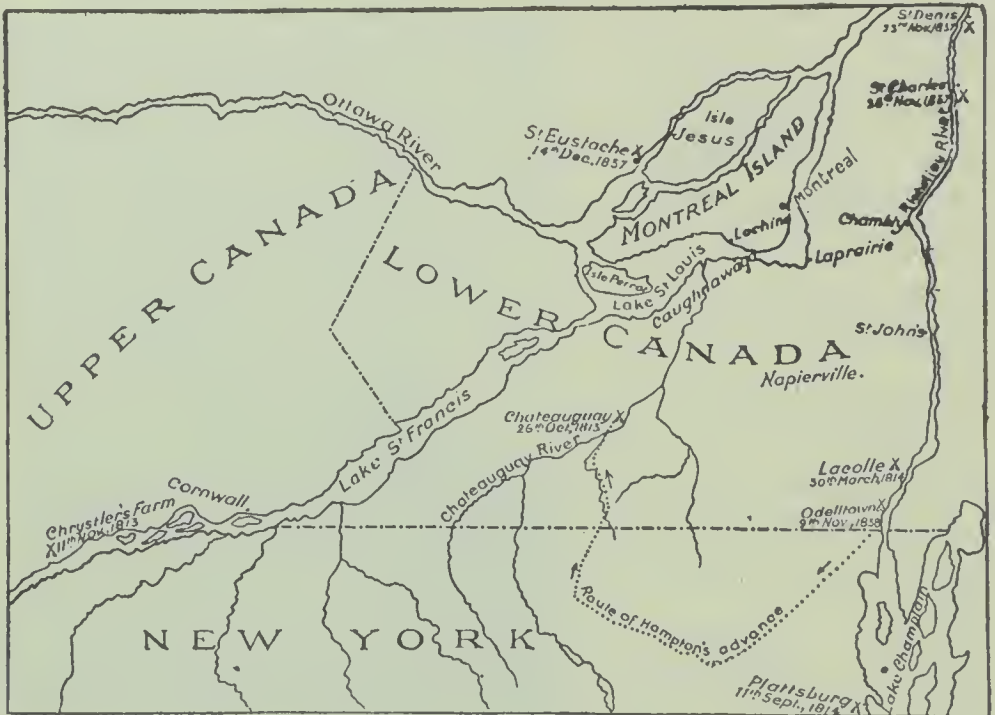


COLONEL DE SALABERRY

General Brown led an American army, five thousand strong, across the Niagara. A much smaller British force attempted to stop him at Chippawa, but were beaten with heavy loss and compelled to retreat northward.

The British commander-in-chief, Sir Gordon Drummond, hurried from Kingston with reinforcements. He met the advancing Americans at Lundy's Lane, near Niagara Falls. There the bloodiest battle of the war was fought. The immediate object of the contending forces was to gain possession of a low ridge that ran parallel with the country road that gives the battle-field its name. For six hours of a hot July night the two armies groped

backwards and forwards in turn, trying to hold or capture the position. It was a blind, confused, murderous conflict, where men fought hand to hand and where leadership was of no avail. By midnight the wearied soldiers could fight no longer. The Americans retired to their



LOWER CANADA, 1812-14

camp beside the Falls, while the British sank to sleep on the ground which they had so bravely held. Each side lost nearly a thousand men. Next morning the Americans threw into the river what baggage they could not carry and retreated to Fort Erie. The invasion had proved a complete failure.

The war in Europe was now ended. Reinforcements were sent to Canada. Prevost soon had ten thousand men at his command, and with them he invaded the United States in September by way of Lake Champlain. He reached Plattsburg almost without opposition, for the American troops were few in number. Off that town,

however, the British flotilla was defeated; and Prevost, having lost command of the lake, retreated without striking a blow, in spite of the angry protests of his officers. On account of this and other failures, he was summoned to England for trial before a military tribunal, but died before the trial could take place.

In the summer of 1814, the Maritime Provinces took an active part in the war. In July, Sir John Sherbrooke, the governor of Nova Scotia, organized an expedition against Eastport, in Maine, and captured the place. Later he was successful at other points, the Americans offering no opposition. It is interesting to note that the custom's receipts collected during the British occupation of Maine later helped to found Dalhousie College at Halifax.



LUNDY'S LANE MONUMENT

The Treaty of Ghent.—Both nations were weary of the useless struggle, and in December, 1814, their representatives signed a treaty of peace at Ghent, a town in Belgium. Territory seized by either party during the war was restored. No mention was made of the disputes on account of which the Americans had declared war.

Effects of the War in Canada.—The various invasions of Canada had caused much suffering and loss of property, and to repel them the blood of her people had been freely

shed. Nor should we forget the self-denial and hardships of the women and children who toiled at unaccustomed labours at home, that husbands, brothers, and fathers might be free to fight for their country. But, as is often the case, loss was not without gain. Patriotic spirit was greatly strengthened by the glorious part that Canadians had taken in a war wholly unprovoked, in so far as they were concerned. For the first time, perhaps, the colonists of the various provinces thought of themselves as one people, as they stood shoulder to shoulder against a common foe.

CHAPTER XVII

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

Causes of Discontent.—The political strife, which had been stopped by the war with the United States, was revived soon after the return of peace. The grievances which caused this struggle were much the same in all the British provinces. The people complained that public affairs were managed without any regard whatever for their wishes. The provincial governments were in form like that of the mother-country, but in their working they were quite different.

The members of the Executive Council were appointed by the governor and held their positions for life. When a new governor arrived, he was ignorant of Canadian affairs and was usually guided by the advice of his Council. From among their friends he chose the legislative councillors, judges, magistrates, and other officials. A strong party thus grew up, the members of which were closely united with each other by social and political ties. In Upper Canada it was called "The Family Compact," and the term soon extended to the other provinces, for the conditions were everywhere much the same. This party controlled the Executive and Legislative Councils and usually had the support of the governor. It was independent of the Assembly, since the salaries of the officials were paid from revenues in the hands of the Executive Council, such as the proceeds from the sale of public lands and the import duties levied by the British government. The money raised by vote of the Assem-

bly was spent on roads, bridges, and other public works. If the supply were stopped, it was the people rather than the officials who suffered. For many years no account of the expenditure of public money could be obtained from the officials by the Legislative Assembly.

Many abuses crept into such a system of government. The money of the people was often carelessly spent, and sometimes corruptly. Public lands were granted to the officials and their friends, or sold at prices far below those required of others. Those who criticized such acts or opposed the authorities called down upon themselves the wrath of the government, and often severe punishment.

The Reformers and their Demands.—The harsh rule of the Family Compacts stirred up strong opposition among the people. The Reformers, as they called themselves, insisted that the country would never be properly governed until the Executive Council should be responsible for their acts to the Assembly, retaining their offices only so long as they possessed its confidence. They further insisted that the Executive Council should not be allowed to spend public money except by vote of the Assembly and that the Council should be bound to return exact account of all moneys expended by them. It was of little advantage to the popular party that they were usually able to secure control of the Assembly, as measures of reform passed there were generally rejected by the official party in the Legislative Council. The Reformers also protested vigorously against the presence of judges and churchmen in both the Legislative and Executive Councils.

Another grievance of the Reformers was found in the land which had been set apart by the Constitutional Act for the use of the Protestant Clergy. The Reformers ob-

jected to the amount of land granted and also to the manner of its selection. In each township block number seven was set aside. This seriously interfered with the making of roads, as those bordering on the reserve were not kept in repair. But the chief difficulty was in regard to the meaning of the words "Protestant Clergy." The Church of England clergy claimed the grant in its entirety. Subsequently the Church of Scotland was allowed its share. This aroused the hostility of the Methodists and Baptists. The question was a burning one and occasioned a controversy which did not cease for many years. The leader of the opposition to the Clergy Reserves was Egerton Ryerson, whom we shall hear of later as a leader in educational reform in Upper Canada.

The Struggle in Upper Canada.—Many of the ruling party in Upper Canada were of the old Loyalist families, as staunch upholders of the authority of the Crown as in the days of old. Some were retired officers who, after the war, had received grants of land in Canada. Others were officials from England, who owed

their places not so much to their own merits as to the influence of friends at home. Prominent among them was John Beverley Robinson, afterwards chief justice, and long an active member of the Executive Council. A



BISHOP STRACHAN

man of even greater ability was John Strachan, the leading Episcopal clergyman of the province, and afterwards bishop of Toronto. He held a seat in both Councils. He was untiring in his efforts to promote the interests of his own church, to which most of the Family Compact belonged, and it was mainly through his influence that other denominations were for many years excluded from any share in the Clergy Reserves.

The rule of the Family Compact soon roused angry criticism. One of their first opponents was Robert Gourlay. When he began to attack them in meetings of the people, the authorities had him tried and convicted of libel, that is, of making harmful statements in public. After a year's imprisonment he was banished from the country, broken in body and in mind. Francis Collins, the editor of the *Canadian Freeman*, met with somewhat similar treatment.

The fate of Gourlay and Collins, and similar instances of official harshness, increased rather than diminished opposition to the government. A successor to Gourlay appeared in William Lyon Mackenzie. He was the publisher of a newspaper, the *Colonial Advocate*. So sharp and persistent were his attacks upon the officials and their doings that a number of their young friends and relatives broke into his office at York, smashed the printing press, and threw the type into the bay. For this lawless act they were tried, and condemned to pay Mackenzie a large sum for damages. In 1828 he was elected to the Assembly. His industry and energy, his fearlessness in exposing the shortcomings of the executive soon won for him a leading position in the Reform party. His lack of self-control and of sound judgment, however, allowed him to say and do many things better left unsaid and undone, and thus diminished his influence for good. More moderate

in his views and loftier in character, but more retiring in disposition than Mackenzie, was Robert Baldwin, whose political influence was of slower growth.

In the elections of 1830 the Family Compact exerted all their influence and secured a majority in the Assembly.

Mackenzie retained his seat for York, but his opponents soon took steps to deprive him of it. He was accused of libelling members of the House in his paper and was expelled. Three times he was re-elected by the people of York, only to be rejected as often by the Assembly. Such persecution made him more of a popular hero than ever, and he was elected the first mayor of Toronto, as York was named when it became a city.



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE

When the Reformers regained control of the Assembly in 1834, they prepared a "Report on Grievances" for the Colonial Office. In it the greatest emphasis was laid on the necessity of making the Executive responsible to the Assembly, if the discontent of the people were to be removed. The British government, who were afraid that if the Executive were made responsible the province would be practically independent, promised some less important reforms and recalled the Lieutenant-Governor, appointing in his place Sir Francis Bond Head.

The new governor arrived at Toronto early in 1836. In accordance with his instructions to make the Executive Council more popular, he gave seats to three lead-



ROBERT BALDWIN

ing Reformers. But it was soon evident that he had no intention of accepting their advice. They resigned, and the governor filled their places with members of the Family Compact. The Assembly refused to vote the ordinary supplies of money for the year. Head promptly dissolved it. In the election that followed he himself took a prominent part. The reckless talk of Mackenzie and the publication of a letter from Papineau,

the leader of the popular party in Lower Canada, favouring a republican form of government, gave him a pretext for declaring the whole party disloyal. The result was a crushing defeat for the Reformers, and in the new Assembly they were outnumbered more than two to one.

The Struggle in Lower Canada.—Here the bitterness of party quarrels was intensified by the jealousy of the two races. The French majority were the more eager for reform, inasmuch as the officials and the two Councils were almost wholly of British origin, and they now demanded that the Legislative Council be made elective, so that they might control it as well as the Assembly. The

British population, on the other hand, were the more ready to resist change, lest the triumph of the Reformers should result in the complete supremacy of the French. Yet there were always some of the English-speaking members of the Assembly in alliance with the French-Canadians.

Although the British government made many concessions to the Reformers in Lower Canada, they had steadily refused to make the Legislative Council elective or the Executive Council responsible to the Assembly. Under the influence of Louis Joseph Papineau, their able but rash leader, the extreme section of the Reformers would accept nothing short of their full demands. The Assembly refused to vote any money for the salaries of officials. In 1834 it drew up ninety-two resolutions protesting against "the injustice and oppression to which the people were subjected," and hinting at rebellion unless redress were granted by the British government.



LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

The British government, however, was still reluctant to yield to the demand for an elective Legislative Council, as dangerous to the interests of the English-speaking party in the province and as opposed to the British system of government. On this point the French-Canadian majority in the Assembly insisted, and again

refused to vote supplies or to transact business until it was granted. The British government now felt called upon to interfere and passed a bill through the Imperial Parliament authorizing the governor to draw moneys from the Lower Canadian treasury to pay the officials, without the consent of the Assembly.

The news of this act produced the greatest excitement throughout the province. Public meetings were everywhere held. Papineau and his friends denounced the British government and counselled the people to resist its authority. Societies called "Sons of Liberty" were organized for military drill. Many of the ignorant *habitants* were ready to believe the assurances of their leaders that the first uprising would establish a republic upon the banks of the St. Lawrence.

The Rebellion of 1837.—The crisis in Lower Canada came late in 1837, but the authorities were prepared. Troops had been sent from Upper Canada, and the loyal people of the province flocked to the aid of the government. The rebellion was promptly crushed. At St. Denis the rebels met with some success, but later, at St. Charles and at St. Eustache, they were dispersed without difficulty. Papineau and other leaders fled to the United States. Another outbreak in 1838 was suppressed.

In Upper Canada Mackenzie, enraged at the triumph of the Lieutenant-Governor, threw all caution to the winds and began to plot a revolution. Men like Baldwin would have nothing to do with such a course, but Mackenzie in a tour of the province gained many adherents. His plan was to gather four thousand men, seize the arms in Toronto, capture the governor, and take control of the government. As all the troops had been sent to Lower Canada, where trouble was anticipated, his plan had some prospect of success.

In December, 1837, Mackenzie issued a proclamation calling on the people to rise. About four hundred answered the call and assembled at Montgomery's tavern, a few miles north of Toronto. They marched against the city, but were promptly scattered by the loyal inhabitants who had hastily assembled. Mackenzie fled to the United States, and, gathering a band of Americans sympathizers around him, set up his headquarters at Navy Island in the Niagara River. There they maintained themselves for a while, until their supply steamer was destroyed and their position was raked by cannon fire from the Canadian side.



LORD DURHAM

Lord Durham's Report.—In so far as the uprising of 1837 aimed at the overthrow of the sovereignty of Great Britain in Canada, it was a complete failure. But most of those who took part, in Upper Canada at least, wished only to overthrow the power of the Family Compact. Hitherto that power had been supported by the Colonial Office, in spite of the protests of the popular party. But the eyes of the British government were at last opened to the depth and extent of discontent in Canada. They saw that something must be done to retain the loyalty of the people.

The British government accordingly decided to send a High Commissioner to assume the Governor-generalship of British America and to report upon its political condition. Their choice was the Earl of Durham, a nobleman of great wealth and a strong supporter of the reform party in England. He came to Canada in 1838, made a searching inquiry into political conditions, and very quickly made himself familiar with the problem which he was called upon to solve. Unfortunately, some of his acts as Governor-general were somewhat arbitrary and did not meet with the approval of the British government, and in a short time, angry and disappointed, he resigned and returned to England.

When he reached England, Durham presented his report to the government. It traced in great detail the causes of the discontent so prevalent throughout Canada. This discontent could be removed only by conducting the government in accordance with the wishes of the people in all matters of purely provincial concern, and by means of an Executive in whom the representatives of the people would have full confidence. In other words, the demand of the Reformers for responsible government should be granted. The report recommended the union of the Canadas as necessary to protect the interests of the English-speaking minority in Lower Canada, the hostility of the two races there being now more bitter than ever. Union would give the trade of Upper Canada free access to the sea, and so end the constant disputes between the two provinces over the division of import duties collected at Montreal. The report further recommended that a railway be constructed to connect Upper and Lower Canada with the Atlantic provinces, and that local municipal institutions should be introduced in all the provinces.

A New Policy.—Although the British government had disapproved of Lord Durham's course in Canada, it accepted the recommendations of his report. To carry out its new policy, the government chose Charles Poulett Thomson as Governor-general. Although still a young man, he was a prominent member of the Cabinet and had a wide experience in public affairs. He had, too, tact, patience, and skill in the management of men.



CHARLES POULETT THOMSON,
LORD SYDENHAM

The instructions to the new Governor-general from the Colonial Office required him to carry on the government as far as possible in accordance with the expressed wishes of the people. The governor's advisers must be such as would enjoy their confidence and esteem. The resignation of these advisers should be called for, if their continuance in office would prevent harmony between the Executive and the Assembly. The principle of responsible government was thus conceded. It was expressly stated, however, that the Governor-general was responsible to the Colonial Office alone. He still retained much power in his own hands, and, unless he were content to be guided by the advice of his Council in exercising it, the possibility of conflict between the Executive and the Assembly remained.

The Union Act, 1841.—The new Governor-general went very diplomatically about his work, and in the end he persuaded both provinces to agree to a union. In

1840 the British Parliament passed an Act providing for the union of Upper and Lower Canada into one province under the name of Canada. It was proclaimed in Canada in February 1841, by the Governor-general, who had been raised to the peerage as Lord Sydenham. It provided that the government of the united province should consist of (1) a Governor-general appointed by the Crown, and assisted by an Executive Council, the members of which were to be chosen from the Legislature; (2) a Legislative Council of at least twenty members appointed by the Crown for life; (3) a Legislative Assembly of eighty-four members elected in equal numbers from each province for a term of four years. All public revenues were placed under the control of the Assembly in return for a guaranteed Civil List of £75,000 a year. The English language only was to be used in the official records of the Assembly. This provision very much displeased the French-speaking people, but it was practically ignored from the beginning, and some years later was repealed.

The New Government.—The first Parliament of united Canada met in 1841 at Kingston, the capital chosen by Lord Sydenham. Its members were loosely grouped into two parties. There was the old Family Compact party—"Conservatives," as they now called themselves, and the Reformers, the latter being in the majority. The Governor-general chose his new Executive, or Ministry, as it was now usually called, from the moderate men of both parties. The most prominent Conservative was William Henry Draper. Robert Baldwin, the Reform leader, held office for a short time only, as he found himself differing on many questions from the Governor-general and the Conservative members of the ministry.

Sydenham's plan of combining men from both parties in the ministry had not worked very well. His successor, Sir Charles Bagot, bowed to the wishes of the Reform majority in the Assembly and chose his advisers from that party only. Chief among these were Robert Baldwin, the most respected and trusted of the Reformers of Upper Canada, and his friend, Louis H. Lafontaine, who had succeeded Papineau in the leadership of the French-Canadians. It was now decided to move the seat of government from Kingston to Montreal, which was more centrally situated and better fitted to support the dignity of a capital city.

Sir Charles Metcalfe replaced Bagot, who had fallen into ill-health. On his arrival in Canada he accepted the view of the Conservatives that the loyalty of the Reform ministry, especially of its French members, was not to be trusted. He felt that his first duty, therefore, was to guard the authority of the Crown against the encroachments of such advisers, and insisted on keeping in his own hands the right of making appointments to office. As he often exercised his power without the knowledge of his ministers, and sometimes contrary to their advice, they resigned, although supported by at least two-thirds of the Assembly. Mr. Draper again took office. As a result of the elections which followed, the parties were evenly divided in the Assembly. The Conservative ministry under Mr. Draper managed with the greatest difficulty to cling to office for three years, although it was plain that they had not the confidence of the country. Party feeling ran high, and there was much discontent among the people.

Responsible Government Fully Established.—In 1846 a Liberal ministry came into power in England under the leadership of Lord John Russell who, as Colonial

Secretary, had conceded the principle of responsible government in 1839. He was now at length convinced that nothing short of the system pursued in England would satisfy the majority of the Canadian people.



LORD ELGIN

The Governor-general should rule in Canada as the sovereign did in Britain and should follow the advice of his Council in local matters, as long as they retained the confidence of the Canadian Parliament. With such instructions Lord Elgin was appointed Governor-general in 1847. He was the son-in-law of Lord Durham and was in every way well qualified to carry out in full the policy

recommended by that statesman in 1838. Moreover, he was fully in sympathy with the proposed reforms.

In 1847 the Assembly of Canada was dissolved. The ensuing elections resulted in a sweeping victory for the Reformers in both sections of the province. On the invitation of the Governor-general, Baldwin and Lafontaine formed a new ministry. One of its first measures was to extend a general pardon to the banished rebels of 1837-38, and William Lyon Mackenzie at once returned to Canada. The French language was now legally placed on an equality with English in the official record of public business, to the great satisfaction of the majority in Lower Canada.

Such measures created an uneasy feeling among the Conservatives, but they were roused to fury by another bill now introduced by the Ministry. Shortly after the union, payments had been made to those who had lost property during the rebellion in Upper Canada. The proposal was now made to devote £100,000 to the payment of losses sustained by Lower Canadians. Only those convicted of treason by courts of law were to be excluded from the benefits of the Bill. Since many who had taken part in the rebellion had

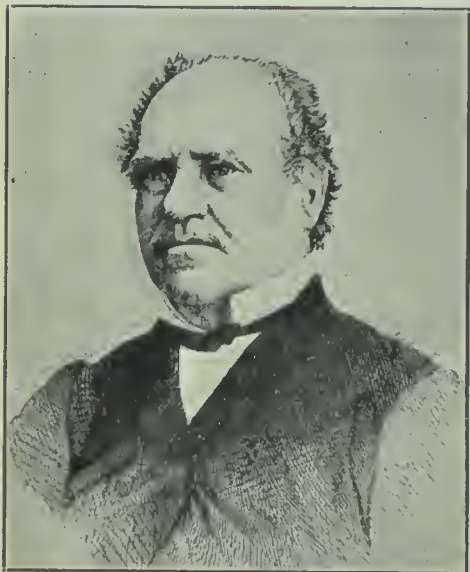


SIR LOUIS H. LAFONTAINE

been pardoned by Lord Durham without trial and would therefore be included with the loyalists, the Conservatives at once raised the cry, "No pay to rebels!" All over the country party passion flamed out as furiously as ever. One section of the population, hitherto the most loyal, began to talk of annexation to the United States. Exciting debates marked the progress of the bill through Parliament, but it was finally passed by a large majority.

Lord Elgin's own opinion seems to have been that such an expenditure of money was unwise, but as the question was one that concerned only Canadians themselves, he accepted the advice of his responsible ministers, and signed the bill at the Parliament Buildings. When he came out, he was greeted with hisses, groans, and rotten eggs by the well-dressed crowd of opponents of the bill.

That evening the Parliament Buildings were attacked by the mob, and, being set on fire either by accident or design, were destroyed with the valuable library of books and historical records. It was felt impossible that Montreal should continue to be the capital after these disorders, and the seat of government was established alternately at Toronto and Quebec, so as to satisfy the rival claims of both sections of the province.



JOSEPH HOWE

The acceptance of the Rebellion Losses Bill by Lord Elgin, with the approval and support of the British government, marks the final triumph of political freedom in Canada.

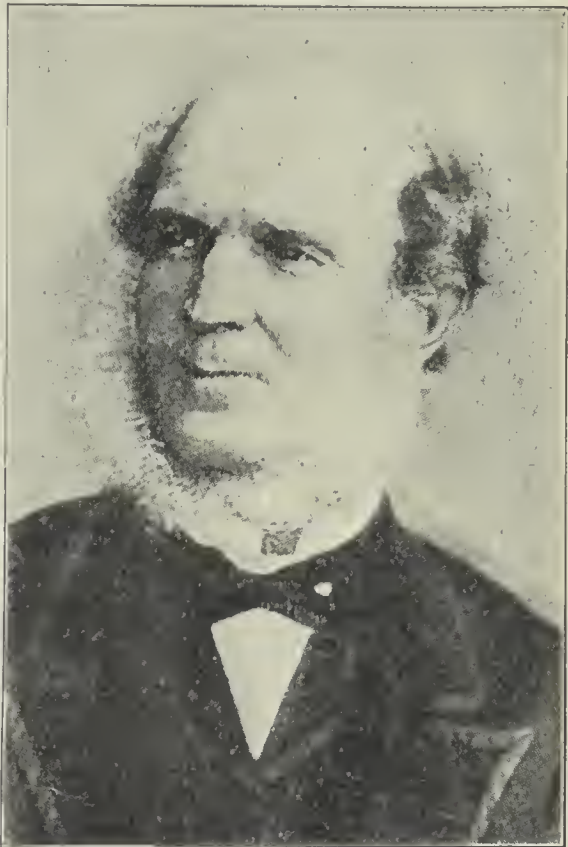
The Struggle in the Maritime Provinces.—The struggle for reform began later in the Maritime Provinces than in the Canadas. It was waged over the same questions, but

not with the same passionate bitterness. At no time was there any tendency towards rebellion. The story of its progress in Nova Scotia is of special interest, on account of the many able men who took part in it. Of these the most notable was Joseph Howe, the son of a United Empire Loyalist. Public attention was first attracted to him by his successful defence of himself in a libel suit which had followed his charges of corruption against the magistrates who ruled Halifax in the interest of the "Family Compact." He was elected to the Assembly in 1836 and became the leader of the Reform party there. He was as eloquent as Papineau, as zealous for reform as Mackenzie, but was more moderate and statesmanlike in temper

than either. His ready wit, his kindliness, and his ardent patriotism endeared him to the people of the province which he served for nearly forty years, and the name of "Joe Howe" is still remembered there with pride and affection.

Immediately after his election Howe proposed resolutions in the Assembly attacking the Council. That body was both legislative and executive, and conducted public business with closed doors, in defiance of public opinion. The official party was too strong to be thus dislodged from their position. In 1837, however, the Colonial Office, in answer to the appeal of the Assembly, promised to give it control of public revenues and to reform the Council. Nevertheless, these intentions were not carried out by the governor, Sir Colin Campbell, who strongly upheld the "Family Compact."

When Lord John Russell's instructions to Thomson granted responsible government to Canada, the Reformers of the Maritime Provinces insisted that the principle should be applied there as well. In New Brunswick, the governor, Sir John Harvey, gladly agreed, but official influence was strong even in the Assembly, and the proposal to adopt responsible government was defeated



LEMUEL ALLAN WILMOT

there in spite of the eloquence of Lemuel Allan Wilmot, the popular leader. The Reformers in New Brunswick had to fight for years before securing a complete victory.

In Nova Scotia Sir Colin Campbell, quite satisfied with his present advisers, refused to make any change. A fierce political storm arose. The Reformers petitioned for the recall of the governor. The Colonial Office, anxious to remove grievances, sent Lord Falkland to replace him, with instructions to follow a more conciliatory policy. He tried the experiment of uniting both parties in his Executive Council. This plan did not work well. Howe and J. W. Johnstone, the rival leaders, differed on almost every public question. The governor sided with the latter, and Howe and his friends resigned office. In the elections of 1847 the Reformers secured a majority in the Assembly. Sir John Harvey, who had succeeded Falkland as governor, appointed a Reform executive with Howe a leading member. The principle of responsible government was thus fully established in Nova Scotia, never again to be questioned.

In Prince Edward Island the struggle was not only for control over the Executive Council, but also to secure settlement of a land question with which the province was burdened. Most of the land was held by large proprietors, who lived in England and who insisted upon very high rents. The land question was not settled until many years later.

CHAPTER XVIII

GENERAL PROGRESS

1800-1841

Growth and Population, 1800—1841.—The half century preceding the union of the Canadas was marked by a rapid increase of population in all the provinces. We have already noted the first great movement of English-speaking people to British North America, that of the United Empire Loyalists in 1783 and 1784. Yet the population in 1791 was fewer than 200,000. In 1841 it amounted to 1,500,000, of whom 630,000 were in Lower Canada, 470,000 in Upper Canada, and about 400,000 in the Atlantic provinces.

From 1791 to 1812, streams of settlers from the North-Eastern States poured into Canada. Some of these, especially the first comers, were of Loyalist sympathies. Others were attracted from the sterile farms of New England by the offer of free grants of the rich lands of Canada. Many such moved northward from Vermont and New Hampshire and occupied a part of the "Eastern Townships" of Lower Canada.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century a great stream of immigration set in from the Highlands of Scotland towards eastern Nova Scotia and Cape Breton. During the next twenty-five years forty thousand of these hardy and thrifty people arrived. Their descendants form by far the largest proportion of the population in that part of the country. Other Highland colonies were established in Prince Edward Island.

The first of these parties, numbering eight hundred, was sent out in 1803 by Lord Selkirk, who was anxious to improve the condition of his poverty-stricken countrymen. In the following year, eleven hundred emigrants from the Western Highlands made their way to Upper Canada and settled on the banks of the St. Lawrence, where they found a considerable number of their fellow-countrymen already established. To the district around they gave the name of their old home, Glengarry.

For many years after the close of the wars with France and the United States, the condition of the working-men of the British Isles was very serious. Taxation was high, wages were low, work was scarce, and food was dear. Many sought to improve their fortunes by emigration. The British government was willing to aid those seeking new homes in the colonies, if aid were needed, by providing a free passage, farming tools, and a year's supplies. Many others in better circumstances were brought out by emigration companies, who obtained immense grants of land at low rates on condition of the speedy settlement of them with colonists. Stimulated by such means, the emigration to Canada amounted to more than thirty thousand a year from 1826 until 1832, when the movement was checked by the epidemic of cholera which swept over the country.

The greater number of the immigrants during this period made their way to Upper Canada. In the settlement of the new arrivals the Canada Company played an important part. This company, organized by John Galt, the Scottish novelist, had purchased from the government immense tracts of land, about two and a half million acres in all, one block alone, lying between Lakes Huron and Ontario and known as the "Huron Tract," containing over a million acres. They were ac-

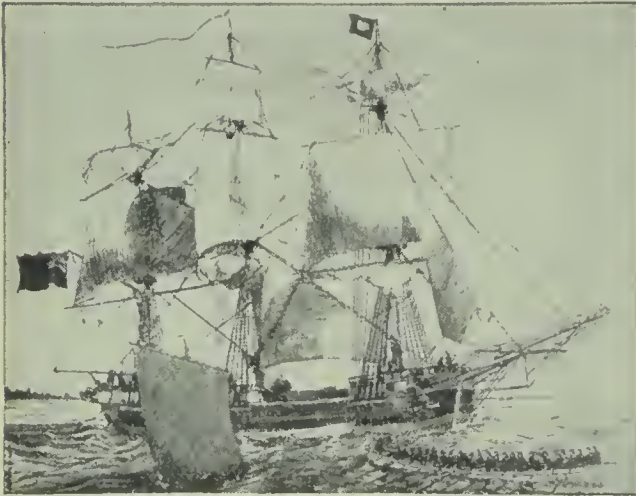
tive in promoting settlements, in laying out towns, and in building good roads through the province.

Life in the New Settlements.—The hardships of life in these forest settlements were those of the Loyalists already described. The immigrants from the British Isles were unused to the conditions of the backwoods, and many were doubtless bitterly disappointed and discouraged when brought face to face with them. Many years of privation and hard, unceasing toil were to be endured. But with the toil came a new sense of freedom and independence. The land was their own, and no man was their master. They reaped the benefit of their own labour, paying few taxes and no rent. They became more self-reliant, being of necessity their own carpenters and blacksmiths, their own tailors and shoemakers.

The first product of the clearing was potash, extracted from the ashes of hardwood trees. It was worth thirty or forty dollars a barrel, and with it the settlers purchased the necessaries of life. Once cleared, the farms yielded abundant crops, the most important of which was wheat. Swine were raised in numbers, and pork was the common meat. It always sold for a good price, being a favourite food in the lumber camps.

Roads.—Prosperity gradually dawned on these new settlements, though hindered long by the lack of good roads by which to carry their produce to the distant markets. Settlers were required to open up highways across their own lands, but for many years no provision was made for continuing them across the great vacant blocks between, which were held either as "Clergy Reserves," or had often been acquired by friends of the Executive Council at small cost and withheld from settlement for purposes of speculation. After 1830

large sums were voted by the Assemblies for road-making, but the money was seldom spent to advantage, and even the main thoroughfares remained in poor condition.



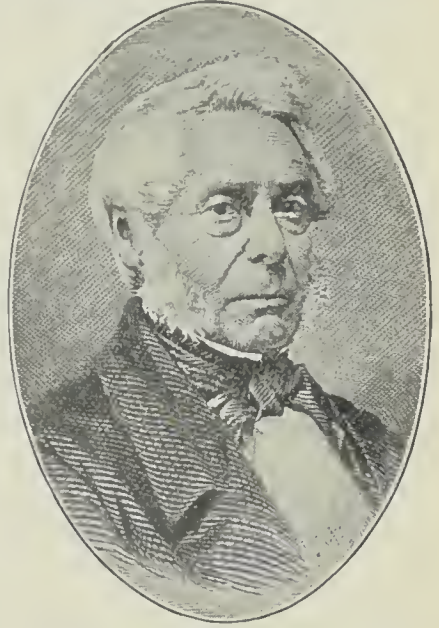
TRANSPORT AND BATEAU, 1816

Travelling over them was slow and tiresome. A journey from Montreal to Toronto or New York by the great lumbering coaches ninety years ago seldom took less than four or five days, and usually many more. The roads were almost impassable to

carriages during the wet seasons of the spring and autumn. They were best in early winter, when they were hardened by frost and smoothed by snow. Then the farmers would load their huge home-made sleighs with wheat, butter, pork, and potash, drive to Toronto, Kingston, Montreal, or Quebec, perhaps eighty or a hundred miles away, and return with the tea, salt, cloth, hardware, and such necessary articles as could not be produced on the farm.

Canals.—The rapid growth of Upper Canada in population and trade rendered necessary the improvement of the great natural highway of the St. Lawrence, which was her outlet to the sea. The Canadian canal system began with the construction in 1821-24 of the Lachine Canal to avoid the rapids of that name just above Montreal. In the latter year the Welland Canal was begun by a company headed by Wm. Hamilton Merritt, to whose foresight and enterprise Canada owes so much. It

was finished in 1829, the greater part of its cost being paid by the provincial government, which later took control of the work. Other canals were afterwards constructed at various points on the Upper St. Lawrence, so that by 1848 a vessel drawing nine feet of water could pass from Montreal to the head of Lake Huron or Lake Michigan. The war of 1812 had shown the need of a military route to Upper Canada less exposed to attack than that of the St. Lawrence. The British government, therefore, constructed the Rideau Canal connecting Kingston on Lake Ontario with the Ottawa. It was opened to traffic in 1832. About the same time the navigation of the Ottawa River between that point and Montreal was improved by the construction of several short but useful canals.



WM. HAMILTON MERRITT

The cost of this great canal system was a heavy burden on the revenues of the country, but the people were amply repaid by the development of trade and the growth of prosperity which followed.

Shipping.—This period was also marked by progress in shipbuilding. In 1841 sixty-four ships were launched at Quebec alone. Most of these were sailing vessels, but Canada took an active part in the development of steam navigation as well. In 1809 a steam vessel, the *Accommodation*, was built and launched at Montreal. Her rate of speed was only five miles an hour, but others, swifter and larger, soon joined her on the same route.

The first ship to cross the Atlantic by steam power was the *Royal William*. She was built for a company of merchants of Halifax and Quebec, and was launched

at the latter city in 1831. In 1833 she sailed from Pictou for London, and reached her destination after a stormy voyage of twenty-five days.

One of the owners of the *Royal William* was Samuel Cunard of Halifax. He became deeply interested in ocean steam navigation, and in 1839 he organized in Great Britain the Cunard Steamship Company. Having secured from the British government a contract to carry



the mails, they began in 1840 a regular service from Liverpool to Halifax and Boston. Their fleet was thus the pioneer of the great Atlantic steamship lines.

Industries.—The building of roads and the digging of canals during this period gave employment to large numbers of people, as did also the lumbering, ship-building, and fishing industries. Fishing and ship-building became of special importance in the Atlantic provinces. But the chief occupation of the people continued to be farming. With good roads in many parts and the opening of the canals domestic trade rapidly increased, as did also trade with Great Britain. Canada, how-

ever, in 1841, was very much shut in from the outside world.

Education.—Many of the most noted Canadian colleges and academies trace their origin to this time. The oldest of these in the English provinces is King's College, founded in 1788 at Windsor in Nova Scotia, for students belonging to the Episcopal Church. To provide education for others Pictou Academy was founded in 1816. Four years later Dalhousie College, established by the governor of that name, was opened at Halifax as a provincial institution. The University of New Brunswick began its work in a humble way as early as 1800. In Lower Canada the Roman Catholic Church maintained many excellent seminaries, the most noted of which was Laval. In 1829 there was opened at Montreal for the education of English-speaking students, McGill University, so named from its founder, a merchant of the city. The most important educational institutions in the upper province were Upper Canada College at Toronto and Victoria University at Cobourg.

The condition of elementary education, especially in the country districts, was still unsatisfactory. It could hardly be otherwise, while the population was so scattered and so absorbed in the struggle for a bare living. Reports show that about 1840 not more than half the school population of the English provinces received public instruction, even for a part of the year. In Lower Canada the condition was even worse, and only a very small proportion of the French *habitants* were able to read and write. The country schoolhouses at this time were usually bare and cheerless. A few rough desks were ranged round three sides of the room, while the children sat all day long on high benches

without backs. Instruction was given in reading, writing, and the simple rules of arithmetic. The teachers were seldom trained, and those of Upper Canada were described by a writer of the time as "ill-fed ill-clothed, ill-paid, or not paid at all."

The rising generation, however, were not indifferent to education and were anxious that their successors should enjoy the advantages which they themselves lacked. During the next period great progress was made in all of the provinces.

CHAPTER XIX

THE NORTH-WEST

1764-1869

The Hudson's Bay Company.—When the Hudson's Bay Company sent Henry Kelsey into the great unknown territory west of the Bay, it had little intention of establishing trading-posts there. So long as the Indians were willing to make the long journey to the trading-posts already established, it did not seem to the company that any advantage would result. They made no effort to follow the trail blazed by their first great explorer. But they were to have a rude awakening. Fired by the successes of La Vérendrye and his sons, French adventurers followed in their path, exploring the country, erecting trading-posts, and making friends of the Indians. Soon the traders on Hudson Bay began to notice that fewer and fewer fleets of canoes laden with furs were reaching their posts each year. Profits were declining. Something had to be done.

Anthony Hendry.—Living at Fort York at this time was a young Englishman named Anthony Hendry, who held an important position as bookkeeper in the company's service. Like Kelsey he was fond of mixing with the Indians, and from them he learned about the Frenchmen, with their trinkets and with their brandy, who were giving so much trouble to his employers. Naturally restless and eager for adventure, he volunteered to return with the Indians to their homes and to find out exactly what the French were doing. The company gladly accepted his offer.

In June, 1754, Hendry left Fort York in company with a band of four hundred Assiniboine Indians. Less than a month later he reached the Saskatchewan, where he found a French trading-post which had been established a short time before. Knowing that the French claimed the country as their own, he expected trouble, but he was allowed to proceed. A few days later, abandoning his canoes, he and his guides struck across the



AN INDIAN ENCAMPMENT

plains. From the roving bands of Indians he received a kindly welcome, but they would not listen to his plea. All had the same story. What was the use of making the long journey to the Bay, when the French were so close at hand and so generous in trade?

In August the party encountered a new tribe of Indians, a tribe that hunted on horseback. These were the Blackfeet, the most warlike of all the Western

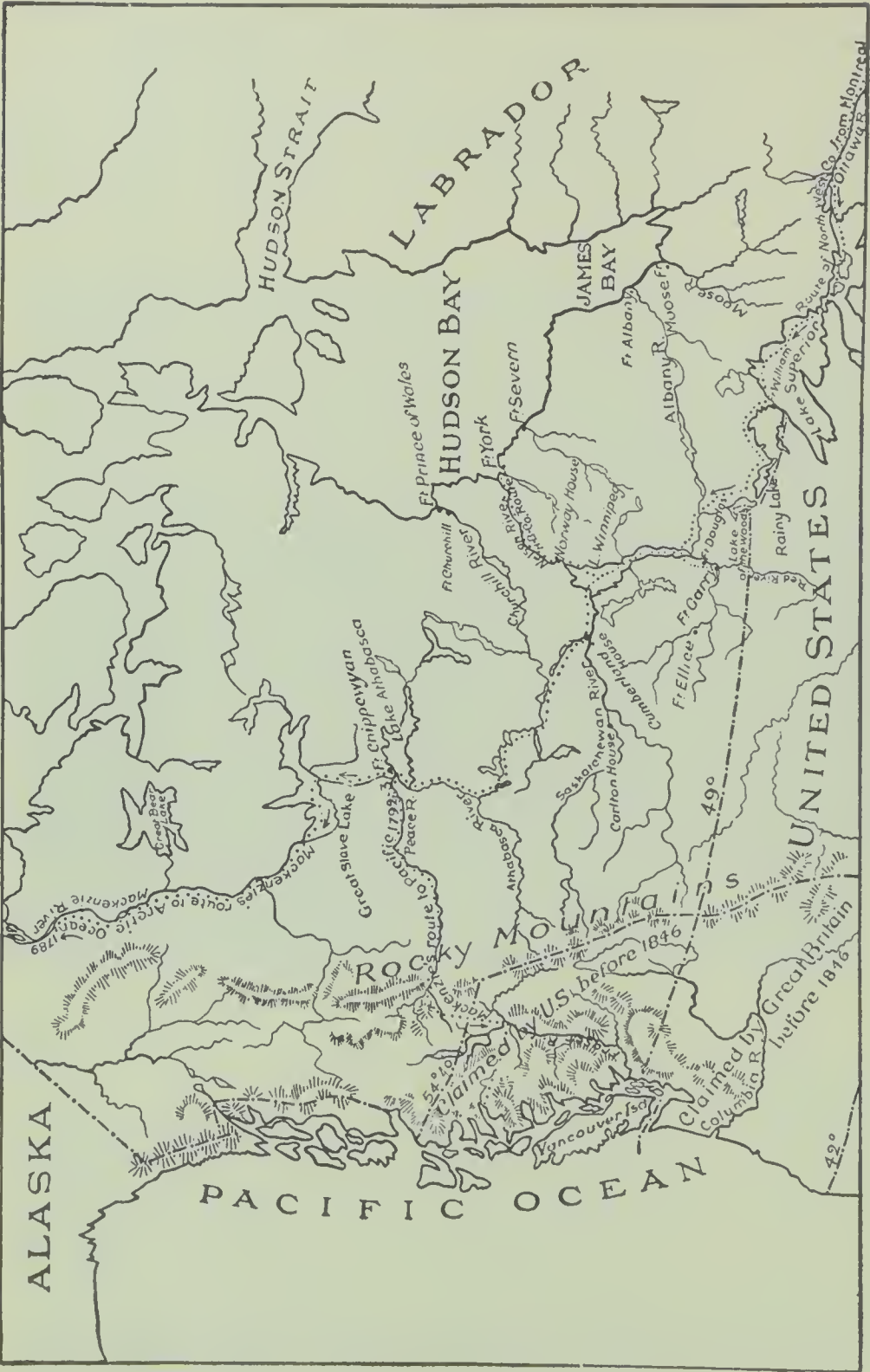
Indians. Hendry felt that he must talk in person with their chief. As the main body of the tribe were following the buffalo herd, there was nothing for the explorer to do but follow after them. When he met with the band, somewhere about the Red Deer River, he was courteously received by the chief, who, however,



INDIANS ON THE PLAINS

would not promise to accept the invitation to visit the Bay. Later Hendry found that the Blackfeet were selling their furs to the Assiniboines, who in turn were selling them to the French.

As it was impossible to return before spring, Hendry and his party passed the winter pleasantly enough at a spot near the Red Deer River, about half-way between the present cities of Calgary and Edmonton. During the winter he gathered enough information to convince him that it would be necessary for the Hudson's Bay Company to cover the interior with trading-posts, if it



WESTERN CANADA TO 1869.

wished to continue to trade with the Indians. Carrying with him a rich cargo of furs, he returned to Fort York in June, 1755.

Hendry's very daring proved his undoing. When he told his fellow-traders about the Blackfeet, Indians who rode on horses, they laughed him to scorn. Such things were impossible, they said. Thus his whole story was discredited, and the reports sent to the company in England were not at all to his advantage. He was rewarded, however, with a grant of £20, but permission to return to the interior was refused. Once again the Hudson's Bay Company was blind to its own interests.

Samuel Hearne.—One of the strongest of the trading-posts of the Hudson's Bay Company—second in strength only to Quebec—was Fort Prince of Wales at the mouth of the Churchill River. The Indians who brought their furs to the Fort were Chipewyans, who roamed in summer over the Barren Lands of the North and in winter had their homes near Great Slave Lake. As early as 1715, Indians had brought to the post specimens of copper and continued from time to time to bring further lumps of the metal. When questioned, they would reply that in the distant north-west near the Far-Off-Metal River were gigantic mountains of copper, and it was from these mountains that their specimens came. As they never varied from their story, the traders gradually became convinced that they were really telling the truth.

In the spring of 1768 definite information, or what seemed to be such, about the location of the mountains reached Moses Norton, the governor of Fort Prince of Wales. He considered it of such importance that, on his visit to England in that year, he laid the matter before the governors of the company. They quickly became interested and instructed Governor Norton to fit out an

expedition, provided with everything necessary and with a trusty man in charge, to seek for the copper mountains in the far north. The company was also anxious to find out "whether there is a passage through this continent," or, in other words, to find out if there were such a thing as a passage to the Pacific Ocean through Hudson

Bay. Again they were fortunate in having on the spot a man daring and resolute enough to undertake the hazardous task.

Samuel Hearne, after serving for some years in the Royal Navy, had entered the service of the company and had had considerable experience in trading with the Indians on the shores of the Bay. Although only twenty-four years of age, he had already made a name for him-



SAMUEL HEARNE

self as a man of determination and courage. Moreover, as a seaman he was familiar with the taking of ships' reckonings, so that he could be depended upon to locate accurately any discoveries he might make. . On November 6th, 1769, the expedition set out from Fort Prince of Wales. In a little more than a month Hearne was back at the Fort.

Inexperience had proved his undoing. He soon found that his equipment was entirely unsuited for travel in the Barren Lands. Bad weather was encountered, supplies

failed, and, to crown all, his treacherous Indian guides deserted him when his difficulties were at their height. Two months later the undaunted explorer set his face towards the unknown on his second attempt to find the mountains of copper.

Again he was unfortunate. His Indians proved sullen and unmanageable. They wandered as fancy led them, or followed the trail of the Caribou herds. The party



FORT PRINCE OF WALES

were sometimes almost frozen, sometimes almost starved. For some days they had nothing to eat but soup made from the leather of their equipment. Late in August, Hearne had the misfortune to break his quadrant. There was nothing to do but to return to the Fort. On his way back, however, he was cheered by meeting with Matonabee, a Northern Indian who spoke English and who had been at one time in the service of the company. Matonabee had himself made the journey to the Far-Off-Metal River, and there he promised to guide an ex-

pedition, if the explorer would again make the attempt and the governor would consent. Two weeks after Hearne's return to Fort Prince of Wales he set out on his third and last expedition, and this time he was successful.

From the first everything went smoothly. Matonabee proved to be a faithful guide and a cheerful companion. On July 13th, 1771, they reached the Far-Off-Metal River, or, as we know it, the Coppermine. There Hearne was compelled to witness a frightful massacre of a band of Eskimos by the Indians who accompanied him. He himself was powerless to aid the unfortunate victims. When the Indians had satisfied their thirst for blood, the



WINTER TRAVEL IN THE NORTH-WEST

party moved forward, and at last Hearne stood on the shores of the Arctic. There he took possession of the surrounding country in the name of the Hudson's Bay Company. But the Coppermine River proved to be little more than a stream, and its mouth was blocked by the ice of the frozen ocean. Opportunities for trade there were none. A more bitter disappointment was to follow. Thirty miles distant were supposed to be the mountains of copper. They proved to be merely fields of stones, among which, after hours of search Hearne,

could find but one large piece of the metal. One more Indian story had turned out to be false. About nineteen months from the date of his departure he was again at Fort Prince of Wales. He had not found the copper mountains, but he had proved beyond a doubt that there was no North-West Passage through Hudson Bay.

The North-West Company.—A great change was now



FUR-TRADERS OF THE NORTH-WEST

to come suddenly over the Hudson's Bay Company. By the Treaty of Paris France had handed over almost all her possessions in America to Great Britain, and, with this surrender, all her claims to the great North-West were finally extinguished. The French traders abandoned their forts on the prairies and withdrew from the country. For a short time it seemed as if the Hudson's Bay Company would once more be supreme.

But the *coureurs de bois* formerly in the employ of the French companies were not to remain idle. Shrewd Scot-

tish merchants in Montreal saw the profits to be gained by embarking in the fur-trade, and soon expedition after expedition was on its way to the North-West, to resume under other names the activities of the French fur-traders. The new traders were active and aggressive, and each was conducting his business for the profit he could make for himself. Rapidly their posts began to



FUR-TRADERS ON LAKE SUPERIOR

dot the prairie country and were found far to the west and the north. If Hearne had visited Great Slave Lake, Peter Pond had discovered Lake Athabaska. Even before this James Finley and Thomas Curry had journeyed as far as the Saskatchewan River. Trade again began to flow in the direction of Montreal, and the Indians began to waver in their allegiance to the ancient company.

Competition seems to have put new life into the Hudson's Bay Company. All its resources were used in the effort to retain control of the fur-trade and to crush its rivals, whom at first it had affected to despise. Post after post was established and manned with experienced fur-traders. Individually the Montreal companies and

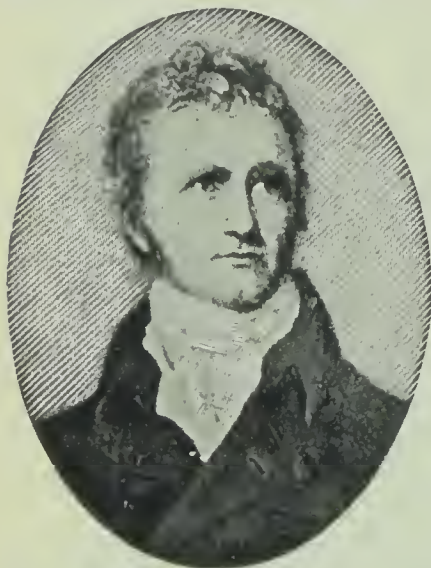
traders could not hope to contend with the powerful English corporation. Again their shrewdness stood them in good stead. In 1787 they united to form the famous North-West Company. A smaller company, known as the XY Company, was organized about the same time, but it was quickly absorbed by the Nor' Wester's, as the new company was commonly called.

The rivalry between the English and Canadian company extended over a period of nearly thirty-five years. They traded in the same territory; their posts were often almost side by side. As competition became keener, a bitterness of feeling arose between the two which sometimes resulted in blows and even in murder. Attached to the younger company were many lawless spirits, whom the chief traders found it difficult to control. Sometimes they got out of hand, with results disastrous to the Hudson's Bay Company.

Alexander Mackenzie.—As the traders of the great fur companies penetrated farther and farther into the interior in the desire to out-distance their rivals in trade, they came upon mighty rivers and lakes of tremendous size. Not all of them were merely traders. Many had the real spirit of the explorer, and the desire was strong in them to find out where these rivers came from and whence they flowed. The North-West Passage was far from settled as a result of Hearne's overland journey to the Arctic Ocean. Some one or other of the great rivers might, if followed to its source or its mouth, reveal the hidden secret.

In the early summer of 1789, Alexander Mackenzie, a partner of the North-West Company, found himself at Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabaska, with all his work for the year complete and little to do until the following winter, the season of the fur-trade. He had landed

at Montreal ten years before without friends or influence, but his ability and energy were such that now, at the age of twenty-six, he was not only a partner in the North-West Company, but was also the governor of Athabaska, the most important and difficult district in



SIR ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

which his company operated. Fort Chipewyan had been built on a site selected by himself. Shrewd man of business as he was, he was a dreamer, and all his dreams centered in the discovery of the North-West Passage. There was a standing reward of £20,000 offered by the British government to him who would discover the passage, but it was not the hope of reward that moved the governor of Athabaska. From his fort he could see two mighty rivers, the one flowing to the north, the other from the west. The joy of discovery urged him forward. His company would not help him either with men or with money. He would find out for himself and at his own expense. The summer was his own. He would follow the Athabaska to its mouth.

Early on the morning of June 3rd, 1789, the party set out from Fort Chipewyan. With Mackenzie were five white men and two Indians, and as guide a Chipewyan named English Chief, who had been one of Matonabbee's band with Hearne on his journey to the Coppermine River. The first part of the journey was through territory well-known to the explorers, but when they reached Great Slave Lake their difficulties began. Many days were wasted there trying to find an outlet.

The Indians they encountered told wild tales of the horrors of the river ahead of the voyagers and tried to get them to turn back. Mackenzie was now certain that the river, which henceforth was to bear his name, flowed into the Arctic, so he urged his men forward by every means in his power. Finally even his white companions begged him to return. But he had heard from an Indian that the sea was within ten days journey, and he promised his men that, if they did not reach the mouth of the river within seven days, he would turn back. A few days later the party encamped on an island. In the morning, when they awakened, they found their supplies afloat. It was the tide. They had reached the Arctic Ocean.

The voyage to the sea had taken only six weeks, but the return to Fort Chipewyan against the current took two weeks longer. In all the party was absent one hundred and two days. Mackenzie had not found the North-West Passage, but he had proved that the great river on which he had embarked emptied into the Arctic and not into the Pacific.

Mackenzie's voyage to the Arctic did not create much excitement among the partners of the North-West Company, but, when he asked permission to follow the Peace River to its source, they were quite willing that he should make the attempt. The explorer was thorough in everything that he did. He knew that his next expedition would be quite different from his last, so, in order to prepare himself, he spent the next winter at his own expense in England, studying astronomy and surveying. In October, 1792, he was back at the Fort.

Warned by his former experiences, Mackenzie resolved not to be caught by winter, so he planned to set out in the fall, proceed up the Peace River as far as post-

ible before winter, spend the winter there, and make a dash for the Pacific as soon as the river should be free of ice in the spring. All went well, and, on the morning of May 9th, 1793, the party embarked in their canoe on the Peace River and plunged into the unknown. With Mackenzie were Alexander Mackay, six voyageurs, and two Indians, ten in all. Their canoe, thirty feet in length, four feet nine inches broad, and twenty-six inches deep, was of birch bark, lined with a light cedar, and could be carried easily over the portages by two men.

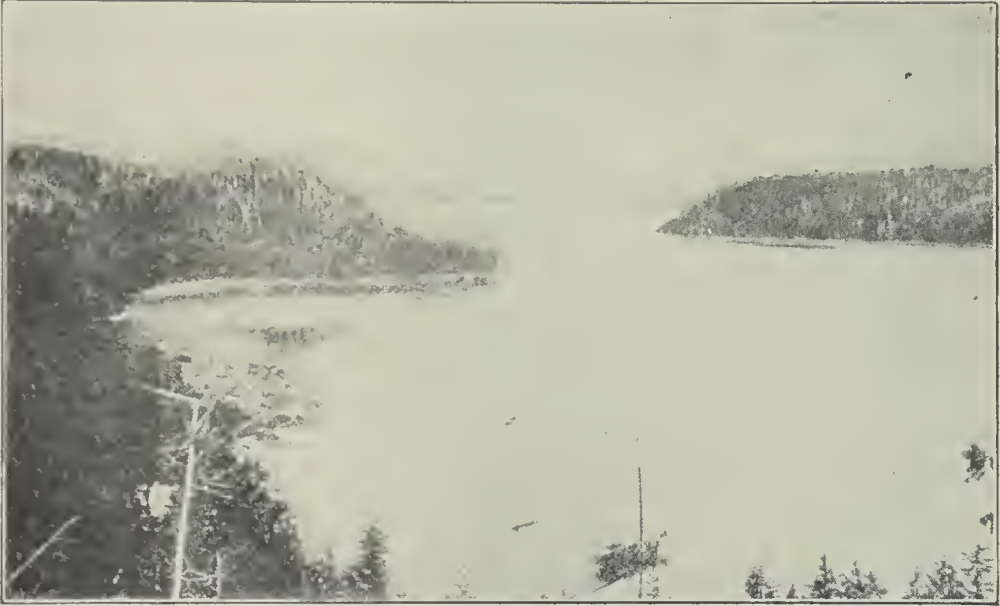
Almost from the beginning the party encountered difficulties. The Peace was at the height of the spring flood, and, as they neared the mountains, they were compelled to make a series of portages that tried both their strength and their courage. But their intrepid leader urged them onwards. Once they had to chop their way through nine miles of forest in order to move their canoe and supplies up the river. A little later they crossed the Great Divide and found themselves on the river afterwards known as the Fraser.

Their way down the Fraser River was a succession of hardships and accidents. At last Mackenzie, following the advice of a band of Indians whom they met, turned back and proceeded overland until he and his weary, discouraged party reached the headwaters of the Bella Coola River.

Their troubles were almost at an end. Embarking in canoes with a band of friendly Coast Indians, they reached the mouth of the river on the morning of July 20th, 1793. Two days later, after exploring here and there along the coast, Mackenzie by means of his instruments definitely located their position. "I now mixed up some vermilion and some melted grease," he says,

“and inscribed in large characters on the south-east face of the rock this brief memorial ‘Alexander Mackenzie, from Canada, by land, the 22nd of July, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three.’ ”

Still Mackenzie’s troubles were not over. His powder was almost exhausted, his supplies had dwindled to al-



THE MOUTH OF THE BELLA COOLA RIVER

most nothing, and the Indians were becoming very hostile. Again he overcame all obstacles and, on August 24th, he and his party were enjoying a hearty welcome from their comrades in the post on Peace River. Mackenzie had received the reward of his labours, for they were crowned with success. He, first of all explorers, had reached by the overland route the Western Sea.

The Red River Settlement.—Reports of the activities of the explorers and fur-traders in the North-West attracted much attention in Great Britain. Among those deeply interested was Lord Selkirk, a Scottish nobleman, who had already sent colonies to Upper Canada and to Prince Edward Island. It seemed to Lord Selkirk that the

valley of the Red River would be an excellent spot in which to plant a colony of his poorer fellow-countrymen, who were unable to gain a living from their rocky farms in their native land. With this purpose in view he bought shares in the Hudson's Bay Company and, by



LORD SELKIRK

shrewd persuasion, managed to secure the company's consent to a sale to him of one hundred and sixteen thousand square miles of land in the district he had picked upon.

As soon as Selkirk had secured his grant he proceeded to gather his colonists. The first party, seventy-six in number, was dispatched to the colony in 1811 under the charge of Captain Miles Macdonell. They reached York Factory in September and, after spending the winter there,

proceeded by way of the Hayes River and Lake Winnipeg to Red River. At Point Douglas in the present city of Winnipeg they landed on August 30th, 1812, the first settlers in the great North-West. Other parties followed, the total number being about three hundred. The colonists received ample farms of the rich lands lying along the river, and, although they were better supplied with arms than with farming tools, in due time they dotted the prairie green with tiny patches of brown—

the first of the famous wheat-fields of the North-West. The settlers spent their first winters at Pembina, so as to be near the headquarters of the buffalo hunters, returning to their farms in the summer. For the protection of the little settlement a strong stockade fort was built on the bank of the Red River, a short distance below Fort Gibraltar, the post of Nor'-Westers at the mouth of the Assiniboine. It was called Fort Douglas from the family name of the patron of the colony.

Selkirk's enterprise had from the first met with determined opposition from the North-West Company.



THE HEADQUARTERS OF THE NORTH-WEST COMPANY
AT FORT WILLIAM

Being the first to occupy the Red River country for trading purposes, they denied the right of the Hudson's Bay Company to dispose of lands there, or of Lord Selkirk to establish a colony. They objected to any colonization of the country, as they thought that the advance of settlement would drive out the fur-bearing animals. An order issued by Miles Macdonell, the governor of the Red River Settlement, fanned their opposition into active hostility.

Food was scarce in the settlement, and the governor, in order to protect the settlers, decided that no food should be removed from the district for one year. This order, if obeyed, would prevent the Nor'-Westers from sending food from their posts on the Red River to their more distant trading-stations. The partners in the North-West Company met at Fort William, their headquarters, and decided that the colony should be broken up. Two of them visited the Red River Settlement and persuaded many of the settlers to go to Upper Canada, while the remainder were compelled to flee for safety to Lake Winnipeg before a band of half-breeds in the service of the Nor'-Westers. In a short time, however, the colonists returned to their homes, their numbers increased by new arrivals from the old land.

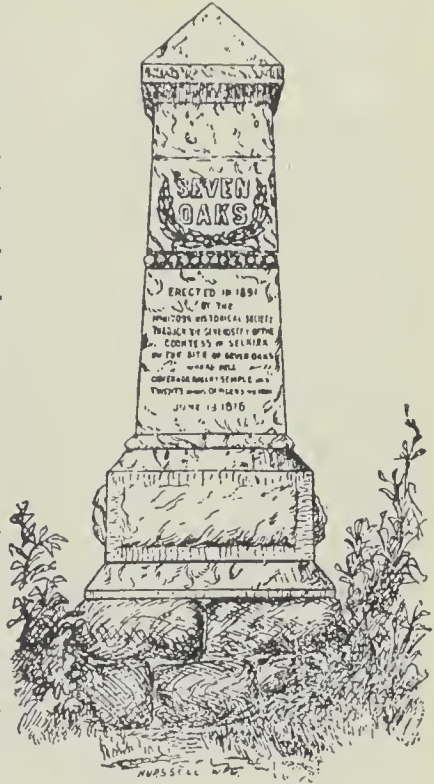
When Lord Selkirk, who happened to be in Lower Canada at the time, heard about the misfortunes of his colonists he at once engaged a body of discharged soldiers and set out for the West. Before he could reach the Red River, however, a grim tragedy had taken place. During the absence of Robert Semple, the governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, Colin Robertson, who was in command at Fort Douglas, seized and destroyed Fort Gibraltar. Nothing could now restrain the Nor'-Westers. Gathering a troop of reckless half-breeds, Cuthbert Grant, one of their leaders, made a descent upon the settlement. Governor Semple, with a small force, met them at Seven Oaks, about two miles from Fort Douglas. In the fight that followed Semple, his lieutenant, and twenty of his men were killed. The settlers once more took refuge at Lake Winnipeg.

Lord Selkirk received the news of the disaster while still on his way to the West. Angry at the slaughter and grieving for the unfortunate colonists, he suddenly seized

Fort William, arrested a number of the partners of the North-West Company who happened to be there, and sent them under guard to Montreal. After spending the winter at Fort William, he proceeded with the rest of his party to the Red River, collected the surviving settlers, and re-organized the colony. The soldiers he had brought with him were given grants of land near Fort Douglas.

In the meantime, news of the lawless actions of the rival companies had reached the ears of the Imperial government. Instructions were sent to the Governor-general of Canada to take charge of affairs and restore order. On returning to Canada Lord Selkirk found himself involved in costly law-suits with the North-West Company over his actions at Fort William. So powerful was the influence of the latter that he was condemned to pay heavy damages, while those who were put on trial for their share in the slaughter of the colonists escaped without punishment. Disgusted with what he considered to be an abuse of justice, Selkirk left Canada and died in 1820. The rival companies were by this time heartily weary of the useless competition which had brought both to the verge of ruin. In 1821 the two were combined under the name of the older company.

In the Act of the Imperial Parliament which united the two companies provision was made for the government of the Hudson Bay Territory. Local governors



SEVEN OAKS MONUMENT
On Kildonan Road near Winnipeg

were to be appointed by the company. Local magistrates were also to be appointed, but serious crimes and important cases were to go before the courts of Upper Canada. In addition, provision was made for a Council of officials of the company to advise the governor.

The population of the Red River Settlement was small at the time of the union of the two companies. The settlers had many difficulties to contend with, but they



THE RED RIVER, SHOWING FORT GARRY AND ST. BONIFACE CATHEDRAL IN THE DISTANCE.

persevered. A plague of grasshoppers descended upon the land for three years in succession. Later, a great flood from the Red River drove the settlers from their homes and caused damage that it took many years to repair. Full of hope, they still looked forward to better days. Immigration had been stopped as injurious to the fur-trade, so that the English-speaking population grew slowly. An increasing number of half-breeds took up lands in the region and built their rude cabins thereon. Such rough farming as was done they left to their

wives and children and spent their time in hunting buffalo, or in trading and in carrying. In 1834 the land originally granted to Lord Selkirk was purchased from his heirs by the Hudson's Bay Company.

In 1835 the government of the Settlement was reorganized, the Council of Assiniboia taking the place of the old Council composed of the officials of the Hudson's Bay Company. As the fifteen members of this new body were appointed by the company, the settlers were not at all satisfied. They thought that they should have representatives elected by themselves. A great change, however, was about to take place in the government of the Settlement, but this we shall have to leave for a later chapter.

The Fur-Trade.—The first governor of the united company was George Simpson, a young Scotsman who had been from boyhood in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. Under his able and energetic rule of forty years, the fur-trade was conducted by very much more economical and business-like methods, and the company enjoyed a long period of great prosperity. Simpson himself personally supervised all its operations. Yearly he made a visit of inspection, travelling by canoe and dog-train, and entering and departing from the post dressed in his black coat and silk hat to the



A RED RIVER CART

music of the bagpipes. Its operations extended from Vancouver Island and Alaska to Labrador. In that vast region it maintained more than one hundred and fifty posts, and traded with more than one hundred and fifty thousand Indians. The traffic in liquor, which had wrought great mischief before the union, was now



SIR GEORGE SIMPSON

discontinued. By appointing as its chief factors and traders at the various posts men of high character who were required to deal fairly and justly with the natives the company won their confidence and good-will, and it is indeed worthy of note that during the two hundred years of their relations no serious trouble had ever arisen between them and the red-men.

After the union of the companies most of the fur of the North-West was shipped by way of Hudson Bay. The most important post was Fort York, at the mouth of the Nelson. It presented a busy scene in early summer, as fleet after fleet of boats arrived, bearing the winter catch of furs and manned by crews of hardy French-Canadians or wild half-breeds. There they met the ships from England and were soon on the return voyage, laden with guns, knives, hatchets, traps, kettles, blankets, and other objects of Indian desire. These cargoes were carried to Norway House at the outlet of Lake Winnipeg, or to Fort Garry, built in 1821, at the junction of the Red and the Assiniboine Rivers. At these points the goods would be dis-

tributed by canoes over the many waterways which laced the country, or by trains of carts over the wide prairies to the distant posts of the north and west. In winter goods were carried in sleighs drawn by trains of dogs. So far distant, indeed, were some of these, and so great were the difficulties to be overcome in reaching them, that nine years often elapsed between the shipment of merchandise to them from London and the receipt of the furs for which it had been exchanged.

The North-West Passage by Sea.—The travels of Hearne and Mackenzie had definitely settled the question of a North-West Passage by land, but there still remained the possibility of a passage by sea to the north of the continent. Many expeditions were sent out from England during the nineteenth century in the attempt to find the passage. Some of these took the northern route through Canada, while others proceeded by sea. In 1845, Sir John Franklin, with one hundred and twenty-eight men in the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, set out on his ill-fated attempt. Three years later the first of fifteen expeditions was sent out to search for the party. It was not until 1857-59 that Sir Leopold McClintock, who had been dispatched by Lady Franklin, obtained any authentic news. All had perished.

To Captain Roald Amundsen, the discoverer of the south pole, belongs also the credit of having solved the mystery of the North-West Passage by sea. In the years 1903-06, in charge of a Danish party, he and his men made their way from the Atlantic to the Pacific by way of the Arctic Ocean.

CHAPTER XX

THE PACIFIC COLONY

Spanish Exploration.—The history of the British colony on the Pacific, now known as British Columbia, does not begin until much later than that of eastern Canada. The early navigators of the Pacific kept well to the south, so that the North Pacific and its coasts long remained uncharted. A whole continent at its widest part separated the English and French settlers in America from the Pacific, and an overland route across Canada to the West coast was not found until 1793—three centuries after the discovery of America. Farther to the south, the Spaniards in Central America had only a few miles to go to reach the Pacific. As early as 1513, Balboa led an expedition across the Isthmus of Panama. This Spanish adventurer was the first European to see the Pacific Ocean. He took formal possession of the Ocean itself and all its coasts in the name of the king of Spain. The Spaniards, however, were much too busy plundering Mexico and South America to devote much time or energy to exploration northward. Practically nothing was done until late in the eighteenth century, when three Spanish officers took expeditions along the Pacific coast as far as Alaska and claimed the entire coastal regions for Spain.

Captain Cook.—But the Spaniards were not destined to become the masters of the coast. In 1778, Captain James Cook, one of England's greatest sailors, reached Vancouver Island on his way to find the North-West

Passage from the Pacific side. He landed at Nootka Sound, a wide and deep inlet on the west coast of the island. There his ships remained four weeks. The natives proved friendly and came from far and near to trade. They were glad to exchange valuable furs of beaver and sea-otter for old nails, bits of brass, and similar trifles. After Captain Cook was killed at the Sandwich Islands, the expedition returned home by way of China. The sailors realized large sums by the sale of their furs at Canton. When the ships reached England, the story of these immense profits caused great excitement among the London merchants. Several ships were fitted out to venture to the North-West coast in search of furs.



JAMES COOK

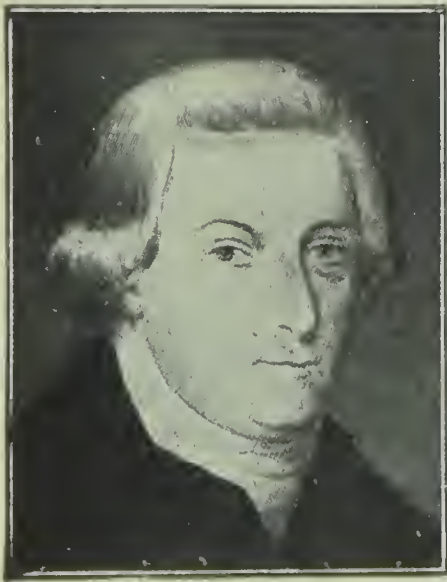
Trouble with Spain.—The early fur-traders did not try to make any permanent settlement on the coast. Early in 1788, however, Captain John Meares brought to Nootka two ships with a number of carpenters to establish a trading-post. The Indians sold him a site, and a small fort was soon erected. The British flag was raised over its ramparts. A small vessel of thirty tons, the first ship constructed on the North-West coast, was successfully launched. It was named the *North-West America*.

Meanwhile, a cargo of furs had been collected, and, in the autumn, Meares loaded one vessel with them and sailed for China. In the following spring, before he

had returned, two Spanish ships arrived at Nootka, under orders to build a fort on the Sound. Their commander was very indignant that the British had forestalled him. Regarding Meares as a trespasser upon Spanish ground, the Spaniard destroyed his fort and seized his ships.

This outrage brought England and Spain to the brink of war. Spain, however, was too weak to try conclusions with the Mistress of the Seas and finally yielded. In 1790 the Nootka Convention was signed. Spain, on her part, agreed to make reparation for all damage done and to withdraw her forces from Nootka. The subjects of both nations were to be free to trade in any territory not actually settled. The result of the Convention was that the Spaniards abandoned all attempts to take possession of the North-West coast.

The British government sent Captain George Vancouver to Nootka with two war-ships to see that the terms of the agreement were carried out. After exploring the shores of Puget Sound and the Strait of Georgia, Vancouver reached Nootka in August, 1792, only to find that the Spanish commander had not yet received instructions to deliver the place to him. Vancouver agreed to wait, and, in the meantime, continued surveying and mapping the coast. Two years later he sailed for home, having grown weary of awaiting instructions which never arrived. In 1795, however, the surrender of



GEORGE VANCOUVER

Nootka took place. In the presence of representatives from both nations, the lands were formally restored to Great Britain, the Spanish flag was lowered, and the British colours were raised in its stead. Britain had openly established the right of her subjects to trade or settle on the North-West coast.

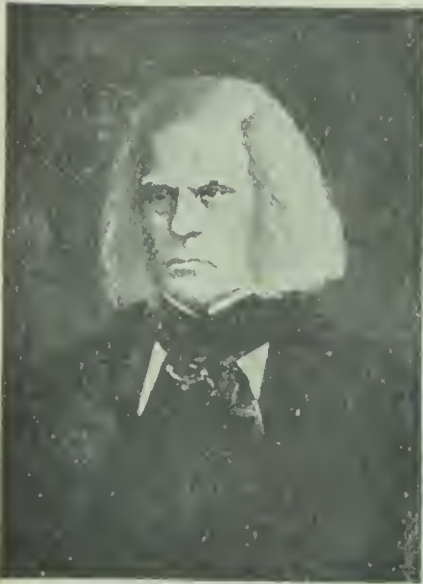
The North-West Company.—While Vancouver was surveying the coast, another equally famous explorer was pushing his way westward across the Rockies. To Alexander MacKenzie, a young Scotsman in the service of the North-West Company, belongs the honour of being the first white man to make his way overland from the prairies to the Pacific Ocean, which, as we have seen, he reached on July 22nd, 1793. The North-West Company soon decided to establish trading-posts in the new country thus opened up. Early in the nineteenth century Simon Fraser and David Thompson were sent



SIMON FRASER

across the Rockies for this purpose. Fraser built several forts in the northern part of the colony and explored the mighty river which bears his name. Thompson's work lay in the south. After exploring the Columbia River and establishing the fur-trade in the southern interior, he determined to descend the Columbia to its mouth.

There he found a trading post already in operation. It was called Astoria, after its owner, John Jacob Astor, a New York merchant. A year or two later the North-West Company purchased Astoria. It was re-named Fort George and became the headquarters of the company on the Pacific coast. In 1821, the North-West Company was absorbed into the Hudson's Bay Company. Soon afterwards John McLoughlin was sent to Fort George to manage the business of the now all-powerful Hudson's Bay Company on the coast.



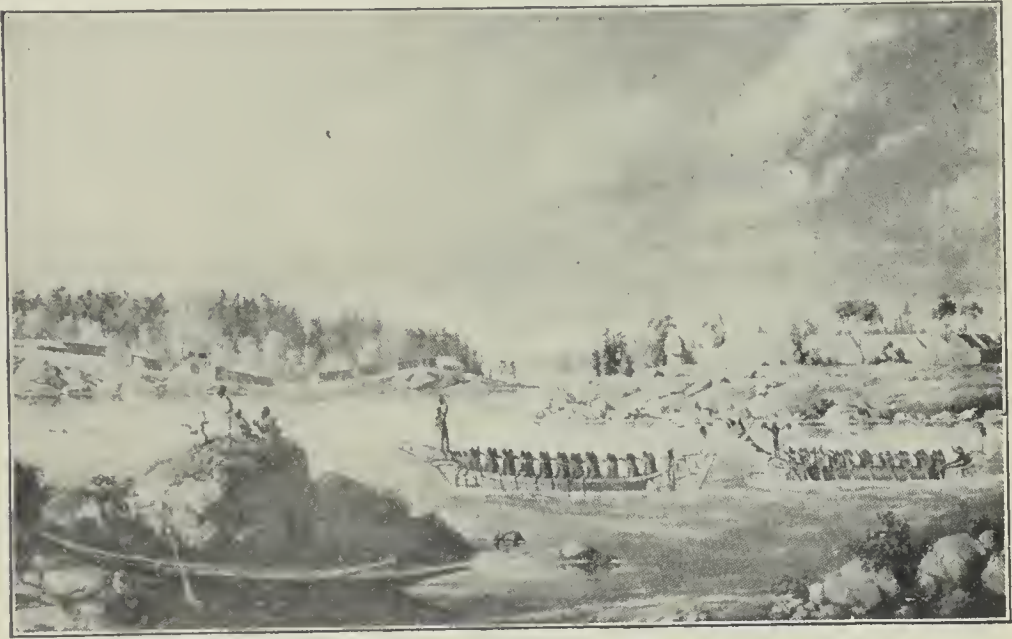
JOHN MCLOUGHLIN

John McLoughlin.—McLoughlin was an outstanding figure among the pioneer fur-traders. His noble bearing and countenance deeply impressed the Indians, and his firm but kindly rule won their respect and friendship. When he took charge of Fort George, the boundary between British and United States territory west of the Rockies had not yet been determined. Fearing that the boundary, when drawn, would

place Fort George in the United States, he decided to build a new fort farther north. A site was chosen on the north bank of the Columbia, and Fort Vancouver was built. For the next twenty years Fort Vancouver was the Pacific head-quarters of the Hudson's Bay Company.

McLoughlin, unlike most fur-traders, did not wish the country to remain wild and unsettled. He encouraged settlers to take up farms close to the company's forts. Many immigrants came from the Eastern States, and

Fort Vancouver soon became the centre of a thriving settlement. It was plain that a new headquarters for the fur-trade was needed. In 1843, he sent James Douglas to Vancouver Island to select a site for the new fort. Douglas lost no time. A site was chosen where the city of Victoria now stands, the necessary buildings



AN INDIAN WAR PARTY NEARING FORT VICTORIA

From a painting by Paul Kane

were rushed to completion, and by October a strong fort was ready for occupation. At first the post was called Fort Camosun, an Indian name meaning "the place of rushing water." In 1845, this name was changed to Victoria.

During all this time the question of the boundary had been left in abeyance. Finally, by the Oregon Treaty, 1846, the forty-ninth parallel was recognized as the boundary upon the mainland. The boundary line was bent southward along the channel south of Vancouver Island, so as to bring the whole island within British territory.

Vancouver Island.—The Hudson's Bay Company had

played a great part in the opening up of North-West America. Its officials had administered vast areas of country, and, upon the whole, had administered them well. On the strength of this, the company asked the British government for a grant of Vancouver Island for purposes of colonization. Its request was granted, and in 1849 the island was handed over to the company for a five-year term. James Douglas, the chief factor of the company, became governor. Unfortunately, the company was more interested in the fur-trade than in colonization, and the path of the early colonist was a very thorny one. The company reserved the best land for itself and charged excessive prices for almost worthless farms. It also had a monopoly of trade. The colonist was compelled both to sell and to buy at the company's stores, much to its profit and little to his own. The coal mines were controlled entirely by the company, and many miners were excluded who would otherwise have helped to make a market for the farm produce. Naturally, the settlers hotly resented this state of affairs.

In 1845, the charter of the company to the island was renewed for a further term of five years, despite the keen opposition of the colonists. Douglas remained the arbitrary ruler of the island until 1856, when the British government ordered him to call an Assembly. He obeyed, reluctantly enough. The island was divided into four electoral districts, and an election held. The first Assembly, consisting of seven members, met on August 21st, 1856.

Two Crown Colonies Formed.—Soon afterwards gold was discovered on the mainland. When news of rich finds reached the California miners, they came in thousands to try their fortune in the new field. The sudden increase in population, the lawless character of many

of the miners, and the resentment of the Indians at the sudden invasion of their hunting-grounds made desirable some stronger authority than that of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1858, the mainland was made a Crown colony under the name of British Columbia. The following year, when the company's charter to Vancouver Island expired, the island also was made a Crown colony. The company was repaid by the British Government for all expenditures made upon improvements on the island. Douglas, ceasing to be in any way connected with the Hudson's Bay Company, became the king's representative as governor of both colonies.



SIR JAMES DOUGLAS

Douglas entered upon his new duties with energy and courage. Matthew Begbie was appointed Chief Justice, and subordinate officials were placed in all the larger mining camps. The strict and impartial justice of Begbie and his associates soon taught all law-breakers, whether red or white, that severe punishment followed hard on the heels of crime. So effective was their work, that a force of 400 Royal Engineers, sent out from the motherland to assist in keeping order, found that their services

as soldiers were not needed. They proved of great use, however, in road building. Among the roads built with their help was the famous Cariboo trail, which crosses several hundred miles of most difficult country into the heart of the province.

In 1863, Douglas completed his term of office as governor of Vancouver Island, and in the following spring his term as governor of British Columbia also expired. For more than twenty years he had been a prominent figure in the development of British Columbia, serving well and faithfully both the Hudson's Bay Company and the Crown. Upon his retirement, he was granted a well-earned knighthood.

The Colonies United.—At this time the total population of the two colonies was not more than fifteen thousand. It was both inconvenient and extravagant to maintain a separate administration in each. Therefore, in 1866, the two colonies were united under the name of British Columbia, with Victoria as the capital. Provision was made for a Legislative Council, consisting of both elected and appointed members, to assist the new governor.

CHAPTER XXI

SECTIONAL STRIFE

Commercial Freedom.—We must now return to the province of Canada, which, as we have seen, after a struggle of many years, had finally gained complete political freedom within her own bounds. From this time may be dated also her commercial freedom. Under the old system the trade of the colonies was controlled by Britain. The Navigation Laws of the mother-country excluded foreign ships from their ports. The amount of duty to be paid on imports was fixed in London, although the expenditure of the revenues thus raised had, since the American Revolution, been left to the colonial governments. In return, colonial goods were admitted free to British markets, while foreign goods paid duty.

In 1846, however, Britain adopted the policy of "Free Trade," throwing her markets open to the commerce of the world. Canadian products, such as timber and wheat, thus lost the advantage which they had enjoyed, and for several years Canadian trade suffered severely. But in time all the British provinces gained more than they lost, for they were now free to regulate their own trade and to fix their customs tariffs to suit their own interests. The repeal of the Navigation Laws in 1849 removed the last barrier to commerce with foreign nations. Merchants, left to their own resources, gained in energy and self-reliance; and the succeeding years were marked by rapid growth.

In 1854, shortly before his departure for England, Lord Elgin negotiated successfully a Reciprocity Treaty with the United States. The terms of this treaty are referred to elsewhere. Its immediate effect was an increased prosperity in the British provinces.

The progress of Canada was also greatly advanced by the passing of a measure through Parliament extending the principle of self-government, by handing over to councils elected by the people of each village, town, city, or county, such local business as the control of streets, roads, bridges, and public improvements. The Baldwin Act of 1849 has since that time stood as a model for all future Municipal Acts in Canada.

Leaders and Parties.—Meanwhile important changes had taken place in leaders and parties. In 1851 both Baldwin and Lafontaine retired from the government. The latter soon afterwards accepted the Chief-Justiceship of Lower Canada and long discharged the duties of that important position with honour and dignity. Mr. Baldwin remained in retirement until his death in 1858. During the twenty-two years of his public life party feeling was intensely bitter, but not even his fiercest opponents ever questioned his uprightness, unselfishness, and purity of purpose. Baldwin and Lafontaine were succeeded by Francis Hincks and Augustin Morin of Upper and Lower Canada respectively.

There was, however, among the Reformers of Upper Canada, a strong and growing party, which complained that the minority was too much under the influence of the French-Canadians and was too slow in carrying out long-demanded reforms. These advanced Reformers were called in the political slang of the day "Clear Grits." There were thus three parties in Parliament, no one of which commanded a majority. The mod-

erate Reformers from Lower Canada under Morin now combined with the Upper Canadian Conservatives under Sir Allan MacNab. The new party, called Liberal-Conservative, remained in power, with a few short interruptions, till 1873.

The ablest and most prominent member of the new ministry was John Alexander Macdonald. After the retirement of Sir Allan MacNab in 1856, he became the leader of his party in Upper Canada. His pleasant manner and easy good-humour won for him many personal friends, even among his political opponents. But beneath these qualities there lay a high temper and a resolute will, and no leader of his time was stronger or more skilful in controlling political movements and in bending men to his purpose. His firm friend and ally in Lower Canada was George E. Cartier, once the follower of the rebellious Papineau, now the loyal upholder of the queen's authority. Macdonald's most dangerous opponent was George Brown, leader of the extreme Reformers. He was editor of the *Toronto Globe*, a paper which had a wide influence in Upper Canada. His readiness of speech, his energy, and his earnestness of purpose made him a power in the Assembly, but he lacked Macdonald's shrewdness and his genius in the management of men.



SIR GEORGE E. CARTIER

Needed Reforms—It will be remembered that the Clergy Reserves had long been a troublesome question in Canadian politics. In 1840 an Act was passed

granting one-third of the proceeds of future sales to the Episcopal Church, one-sixth to the Presbyterian Church, and dividing the rest among other Protestant denominations. But a strong agitation soon began against



GEORGE BROWN

the application of public funds to religious purposes at all. An Act of Parliament passed in 1854 provided that the money derived from the sale of the "Clergy Reserves" should be distributed among the various municipalities in proportion to their population, to be used for the support of public schools and for other local purposes.

The people of Lower Canada were more interested in another land grievance. Most of the grants of land during the French rule were made according to seigniorial tenure, as already described. The conditions were at first easy for the tenant. After the conquest, however, rents were raised by the seigneurs. Other dues were harshly exacted, or changed into money payments. The whole system had become a drag upon the progress of the province, but reform was long delayed by the political influence of the seigneurs. A measure, passed at the same time as the Clergy Reserves Act, rendered the sale of such lands more easy and provided for the payment of a large sum of money to the landlords in return

for the abolition of seigniorial rights. Compensation was fixed by a Seigniorial Court established for the purpose.

In 1854, also, at the request of the Canadian government, the Imperial Parliament passed an Act amending the Union Act to provide for the election of the members of the Legislative Council by direct vote of the people. Formerly members of that body had been appointed by the governor on the advice of his Executive Council.

Representation by Population.—Another troublesome question was that of representation in Parliament. When the census of 1851 showed that the population of the upper section of the province had surpassed that of the lower, the Reformers there demanded that it should receive an increased number of members. The French-Canadians were firmly resolved that no change should be made, as it would place them in an inferior position in the union. They pointed out, too, that the representation of Lower Canada had not been more than that of Upper Canada during the years when its population had been much greater. The effect of this agitation was to give the Reformers a large majority in Upper Canada, but to make the Lower Canadians almost unanimous in support of the Conservatives. Thus party strife, unfortunately, became sectional strife.

Ottawa Chosen as Capital.—No one was satisfied with the troublesome and expensive custom of changing the capital every four years, but the choice of a permanent seat of government was made so difficult by sectional jealousy that the government asked Queen Victoria to decide. In 1858 she named Ottawa. The supporters of other rival cities were disappointed and united to carry a resolution in the Assembly disapproving of the choice. The government, now led by John A. Macdonald,

resigned. But George Brown, whose political views made him very unpopular in Lower Canada, was unable to form a ministry commanding the confidence of Parliament, and the Conservatives resumed office, this



SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD

time under the leadership of George E. Cartier. From 1859 to the completion of the Parliament Buildings at the new capital in 1866, Quebec was the seat of government.

A Deadlock.—According to the census of 1861 there was a difference of 300,000 in population in favour of Upper Canada. The cry for representation by population—"rep. by pop."—grew louder than ever. Parties became so evenly balanced that

a change of a few votes in the Assembly meant a change of government. Four different ministries, equally weak, held office within two years. Under such conditions, ministers spent their energies in efforts to strengthen their political position. Corruption flourished, and public business was at a standstill.

When the legislative union of the Canadas had thus proved a failure, the minds of thoughtful statesmen turned to a federal union of all the provinces, under

which matters of common interest might be placed in charge of a general government, while matters of local interest would be left under the control of provincial governments. Such a plan, it was hoped, would end the jealousy and ill-feeling which had been caused by the settlement of questions concerning the one section alone by the votes of members from the other. In 1864 the rival leaders agreed to sink their differences and to work together for that end. George Brown, Oliver Mowat, and William McDougall of the Reform party took office along with such Conservatives as John A. Macdonald, George E. Cartier, and Alexander T. Galt. The Premier was Sir E. P. Taché, a veteran French-Canadian statesman of moderate views, who had the confidence of both parties.

CHAPTER XXII

CONFEDERATION

Growth of the Idea.—The scheme of a union of the British-American provinces was not a new one. It had been suggested by Chief-Justice Sewell of Lower Canada and by Lord Durham. In 1854 a resolution in favour of it was unanimously passed by the Assembly of Nova Scotia, after eloquent speeches by Howe and J. W. Johnstone, the party leaders. Alexander T. Galt, warmly supported such a plan in the Canadian Assembly in 1858, and, when he joined the Cartier-Macdonald government a little later, it was made a part of their policy. But no active steps to carry the policy of Confederation into effect were taken until it was adopted in 1864, when all other plans had failed, as the one remedy for the deadlock in the Canadian Parliament.

The Charlottetown Conference.—In the meantime the Maritime Provinces had taken up the idea of a smaller union among themselves. Representatives of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island met at Charlottetown in September, 1864, to arrange the terms. The opportunity was seized by the Canadian government, and Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, and Galt, with other ministers, joined the conference to urge the wider scheme upon it. The Maritime delegates gave them a warm welcome, but postponed consideration of a general union until they should have consulted their respective governments. Arrangements were made, however, for another meeting at a later date.

The Quebec Conference.—On October 10th, 1864, thirty-three delegates from all the provinces, including Newfoundland, reassembled at Quebec. Canada was represented by its whole Cabinet. Prominent among the other representatives were Dr. Charles Tupper, Samuel Leonard Tilley, and John Hamilton Gray, the Premiers of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island respectively. The meetings, which were held with closed doors, continued for eighteen days. "The Quebec Scheme" of union was finally agreed to. It was to be kept secret until it should be submitted to the various provincial Legislatures for their approval. By some means, however, knowledge of its terms leaked out, and the people everywhere were soon eagerly discussing it. Old party lines were for the time forgotten, men taking sides as Confederates or Anti-confederates.



SIR LEONARD TILLEY

Confederation Delayed.—Confederation was of vital importance to Canada, and, early in 1865, it was approved of in her Parliament by large majorities. But in the eastern provinces the Quebec Scheme met with strong opposition. The Legislature of Prince Edward Island rejected it; that of Newfoundland would not even discuss it. In New Brunswick the question was submitted to the people. They returned a hostile majority, so

that the Tilley government was compelled to give place to one formed from the Anti-confederate party. With New Brunswick in opposition, Tupper felt that it would be useless to proceed with the scheme in Nova Scotia, and for a year no progress was made.

Confederation Advanced.—During the Civil War which raged from 1861 to 1865 between the Northern and Southern States of the American Union, there were many people in the Northern States who felt that the sympathy of the people in both Great Britain and



SIR CHARLES TUPPER

Canada was in favour of the South. This was not the case, so far as Canada was concerned, but it had the effect of creating a public opinion in the United States unfavourable to Canada. Further, during the war the price of provisions in the United States became very high, and the Reciprocity Treaty enabled the Canadian farmers to sell their products there at a large profit. In 1865 the government of the United States gave notice that the

treaty would be discontinued at the end of a year. For a time the effect on Canadian trade was serious, but it showed to Canadians the danger of depending too much upon a foreign market for their products. Thus their desire was strengthened for a political union between the provinces, which would naturally be followed by an increase of inter-provincial trade.

The cause of Confederation was also aided by events occurring along the American frontier in 1866. There

were in the United States at this time a great number of Irishmen who cherished a bitter hatred towards all things British. They called themselves Fenians. Many were disbanded soldiers without employment, who readily joined an enterprise which promised harm to Canada and profit to themselves. Early in the year, bands threatened to cross the St. Croix River into New Brunswick, but were prevented by the arrival of troops. On June 1st, 1866, about nine hundred desperadoes entered Upper Canada at Fort Erie. Advancing westward, they were met at Ridgeway by a force of volunteers from Toronto and Hamilton. The Canadians were not skilfully led, and, after a sharp skirmish, they retreated with a loss of forty killed and wounded. The Fenians also retired and, hearing that the regulars were approaching, they fell back across the Niagara River. A few days later a similar raid on the Eastern Townships resulted in the arrest of the invaders by soldiers of the United States.

The danger to which the provinces had been exposed by these raids emphasized the need of strengthening themselves by union. The British government, strongly in favour of Confederation, brought its influence to bear on New Brunswick through the governor. Public opinion there began to change. The ministry resigned, and another election restored the Confederates to power. The Legislature now passed a resolution in favour of union. The approval of the Legislature of Nova Scotia followed. There was, however, strong opposition from Joseph Howe, who, although a life-long advocate of union, disapproved of the proposed scheme on the grounds that its terms were unfair to Nova Scotia and that the people of the province had not been given an opportunity to vote upon it.



THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION

From the painting by Frank Harris

Confederation Carried.—Towards the close of 1866 the representatives of the provinces repaired to London. John A. Macdonald was made chairman of the conference. Under his guidance the Quebec Scheme was again discussed and approved of, some changes being made in favour of the smaller provinces. A bill embodying its provisions was then submitted to the British Parliament. Having passed the House of Commons and the House of Lords, it was signed by Queen Victoria on March 29th, 1867, and so became the British North America Act. By royal proclamation it came into effect on July 1st, since called Dominion Day, because on that date Upper Canada (now Ontario), Lower Canada (now Quebec), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were united into the Dominion of Canada.

Terms of the British North America Act.—By the terms of the British North America Act the public affairs of the Dominion are placed under various authorities. The Imperial government appoints the Governor-general as the representative of the sovereign. It retains the power to disallow any bill of the Canadian Parliament referred to it by the Governor-general, and the power to control the relations of Canada with foreign countries.

The union of the Canadian provinces is federal, that is, each province has its own local Legislature, while all the provinces send representatives to a Dominion Parliament. The Dominion government is given authority over such matters as concern the country as a whole, such as militia and defence, trade and commerce, banking and currency, railways, postal communication, etc. It consists of a Governor-general, with a Premier and his Cabinet, and a Parliament. The latter includes the Senate, whose members are appointed for life, and the House of Commons, whose members are chosen for five

years by popular vote, the number from each province being in proportion to its population. The representation of Quebec in the House of Commons is fixed at sixty-five, and the other provinces have representation according to the relation that their population bears to that of the province of Quebec.

The provincial governments are similar in constitution to that of the Dominion. Each has a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Dominion government, a Premier and Cabinet, and a Legislative Assembly corresponding to the House of Commons. In Nova Scotia and Quebec there are Legislative Councils corresponding to the Senate. The provincial governments have control over education, civil and municipal law, mines, public lands (in the older provinces), and whatever pertains to a province alone.

The Dominion Organized.—Lord Monck, governor of the old province of Canada since 1861, was appointed Governor-general of the new Dominion by the queen. He asked Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been knighted for his part in carrying Confederation, to form the first ministry. The Prime Minister was able to gather around him able men from both of the old parties. The first appointments to the Senate were made from Conservatives and Reformers in equal numbers. The elections to the House of Commons returned a large majority of supporters of the government everywhere, except in Nova Scotia. The opposition, under the leadership of Joseph Howe, swept that province, Dr. Tupper being the only Confederate elected.

CHAPTER XXIII

GENERAL PROGRESS

1841-1867

Population.—The increase of population continued to be rapid during this period. In 1867 the number of people in the new Dominion was over 3,300,000. The majority of immigrants were attracted to Upper Canada, where there were still wide areas of unoccupied land of great fertility. The famine which raged in Ireland from 1845 to 1847 drove great numbers of the people across the Atlantic. In the latter year more than 90,000 reached the St. Lawrence. Fever broke out in the closely-packed ships which brought them, and many thousands died miserably after their arrival. The great majority of the survivors found homes in the cities and towns rather than in the country districts of Canada.

Communication—A marked improvement was made in the roads of Canada after 1841. This was owing to better methods of construction, and especially to the fact that by the establishment of municipal government they were brought more directly under the control of the people themselves. The completion of the canal system in 1848 has been already mentioned.

But the greatest improvement in communication during this period was effected by the building of railways. The first steam railway was opened in England in 1825 between Liverpool and Manchester. Seven years later the first railway in British North America was in operation between Laprairie on the south side of the St. Lawrence near Montreal and St. John's on the Richelieu.

In 1846 work was begun on a line to connect Montreal and Lachine.

These roads, however, were short and comparatively unimportant, and the real beginning of railway building in Canada may be dated from 1851, when a bill passed through Parliament providing for the construction of a line from the western boundary of Upper Canada to the city of Quebec, with a branch to Portland on the Maine coast. The first part of this Grand Trunk road was opened in 1853 between Montreal and Portland.



THE FIRST RAILWAY TRAIN IN CANADA, 1837

This was an event of great importance, inasmuch as it gave Canada for the first time an outlet to the sea in winter. The main line from Sarnia to Quebec was completed in 1856. To Upper Canada, especially, it was of immense value and bound the people of the two sections more closely together than ever their political union did. The governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick discussed plans for the construction of a railway to connect these provinces, but the parties interested could not agree on its route. Railways, however, were built in the Atlantic provinces to connect Halifax with Truro and Windsor, and St. John with Shediac. By 1867, two thousand one hundred and fifty miles of line were in operation in the provinces.

The development of trade by the Grand Trunk Rail-

way led to the establishment of the Allan Steamship Line by Hugh Allan of Montreal. Beginning with six small vessels in 1856, it gave weekly communication with Great Britain from Quebec in summer and from Portland in winter.

Until 1851 the post-office had been under the control of the British government. The service was not satisfactory, and the rates of postage were very high. A letter from Montreal to Toronto cost twenty-five cents, and one to Great Britain a dollar. When the management was transferred to the provincial governments, a uniform rate of six cents was established to all places in the British North American provinces.

In 1858 the first Atlantic cable was laid between Ireland and Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. It soon ceased to work, but, in 1866, telegraphic communication with the old world was again established by a new cable.

With the development of communication by the building of railways and the establishment of steamship lines, trade naturally increased very rapidly. Farming, however, was still the leading occupation of the people. Each year more and more land was being cleared and made available for agriculture. Trade was



SIR HUGH ALLAN

largely with Great Britain and, especially while the Reciprocity Treaty was in force, with the United States. There was very little business carried on between Canada and the British provinces by the Atlantic.

Education.—We have seen that elementary education in Canada was in a very backward state before the



DR. EGERTON RYERSON

union. But a great improvement was effected by Acts passed in 1846 establishing a regular system of common schools in both sections of the province. Each district was to have one or more schools, managed by a board of trustees elected by the people. They were to be supported partly by taxes levied on the property of the district and partly by grants from the provincial government. Provision was

made for the inspection of the schools by government officials appointed for the purpose. Normal Schools for the better training of teachers were built at Toronto, Quebec, and Montreal.

In Upper Canada the first Superintendent of Education was Egerton Ryerson, who held office for more than thirty years. To his energy and ability the success of the educational system of that province was largely due. Free schools were established in Prince Edward

Island in 1852. In 1864 Charles Tupper, the leader of the provincial government at that time, gave to Nova Scotia a school system like that of Upper Canada. Under its quickening influence the number of school pupils was doubled in six years. In New Brunswick no important change was made until after Confederation. Great progress was also made in advanced education. King's College, founded by Bishop Strachan as an Episcopal institution, became in 1849 the undenominational and provincial University of Toronto. Queen's College was established at Kingston and Ottawa College at Ottawa. Dalhousie and McGill were reorganized into active life.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE EXTENSION OF THE DOMINION

Discontent in Nova Scotia.—One of the first tasks of the Macdonald government was to soothe an agitation in Nova Scotia for a repeal of the union. The Anti-confederates had carried the provincial as well as the Dominion elections, and, as soon as they came into office, they sent a delegation, headed by Joseph Howe, to petition the Crown for separation from the Dominion. Dr. Tupper was sent by the Canadian government to combat their arguments. After hearing both sides, the British government refused to take any action. Convinced that further opposition was not only useless but also harmful, Howe laboured now, as he said, only “to make the best of a bad bargain.” As one of the chief complaints was that the province had received too small a grant from the Dominion for local government, Sir John A. Macdonald now offered “better terms” in this respect. Howe accepted them for the province and a seat in the Dominion Cabinet for himself. Many of his old supporters now denounced him as a traitor; others approved of his conduct as wise and patriotic. He continued in office until 1873, when he was appointed to the Lieutenant-Governorship of his native province. His health had failed, however, and he died very shortly after.

The North-West Acquired, 1869.—The great North-West had remained, for the most part, in the same condition for the past fifty years. The Hudson’s Bay Com-

pany still maintained a monopoly of the fur-trade, discouraging settlement and concealing the agricultural wealth of the land. Nevertheless the value of the country was gradually becoming known, and the Dominion government was anxious to obtain possession of the whole region, especially as the United States had recently acquired the Russian territory of Alaska in the far northwest. The British government exerted its influence on the company, and, in 1869, the latter consented to surrender its trade monopoly and to cede to Canada its rights in the territory for £300,000. It was to retain its trading-posts, a large number of acres around each post, and one-twentieth of the land in the district lying south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan River, between Lake Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains. William McDougall, who had long taken a great interest in the North-West, was made its first governor. With a small party he at once set out by way of the United States for Fort Garry, which was to be the seat of government for the new territory. On his arrival at the frontier of the Red River district, he was, to his great astonishment, prevented from entering by an armed band of the half-breed inhabitants.

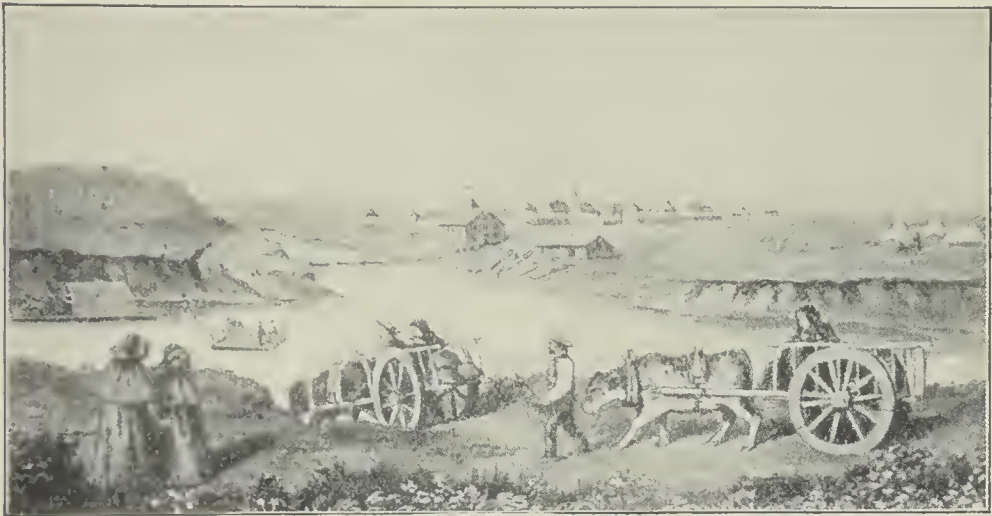
The Red River Rebellion, 1869-1870.—The transfer of the country to the Canadian government had aroused the alarm and anger of the French half-breeds, who had settled to the number of about ten thousand on the banks of the Red River. Union with Canada, they thought, meant the coming of settlers, the decrease of game, and the imposition of taxes. Canadian surveyors were already at work running lines through their settlements, and the ignorant occupants feared that the loss of their lands would follow. Their excitement was fanned into rebellion by the craft and ambition of Louis

Riel. He had received more education than his half-breed countrymen, but his judgment was weak, and his temper violent. He formed a "provisional government," turned back the Canadian officials, as we have seen, seized the Hudson's Bay Company's post of Fort Garry, and acted as master of the country. His orders were unhesitatingly obeyed by the French half-breeds. The Scottish half-breeds sympathized to some extent with his aims, but did not join him. The Hudson's Bay Company's officials, angry at the change of ownership, did not interfere. Governor McDougall was helpless. He called upon the loyal Canadian settlers for aid in establishing his authority, but they were too few to oppose Riel with success. When some of them did take up arms, they were soon overpowered and imprisoned by the rebel leader. One of the prisoners, Thomas Scott, boldly defied Riel's authority. The latter, in a rage, ordered his execution, and it was almost immediately carried out in a most barbarous manner.

As soon as the news of the outbreak reached the Canadian government, they sent to Rome for Bishop Taché, who, during his long residence among the half-breeds, had obtained an unbounded influence over them. Through him the government promised the rebels pardon for past offences, if they would submit to the authority of Canada. This offer did not refer to Riel's murder of Scott, as that crime had not then been committed. Nevertheless the Bishop included it in the general pardon issued on his arrival. Riel now freed his remaining prisoners, and an uneasy quiet again settled upon the country.

Scott's murder caused the utmost anger throughout Canada, particularly in Ontario, his former home. In order to restore its authority, the Dominion

government now dispatched to the Red River a force consisting partly of regulars and partly of Canadian volunteers, with Colonel Garnet Wolseley of the British army in command. As armed troops would not be permitted to pass through American territory, the expedition took the old fur-traders' route westward from



WINNIPEG IN 1872

Lake Superior. Nearly three months were consumed by the journey from Toronto. Wolseley reached Fort Garry in August, 1870, without opposition, and Riel fled to avoid capture.

The Province of Manitoba Formed, 1870.—In the meantime, the Dominion government had paid the purchase money for the Hudson Bay Territory to the company and had passed an Act through Parliament erecting the Red River Settlement district into the Province of Manitoba, with a government similar to that of the other provinces. Manitoba became a partner in Confederation on July 15th, 1870. A large area of land was reserved for the settlement of the claims of the half-breeds, and many of their demands were granted. When, with Adams G. Archibald as Lieutenant-Governor, the

government was established, Wolseley and the regular troops returned. The volunteers remained for the winter, and many of them afterwards settled in the country. Fort Garry changed its name to Winnipeg and became the capital of the new province.

In 1871 the Fenians, who, during the previous year had made several petty raids into the Eastern Townships, planned an attack upon the new province. Alarmed at its defenceless condition, Archibald accepted the offer of Riel to rally the half-breeds to his support. Their aid was not needed, however, as the Fenians were dispersed by the troops of the United States before they were able to do any mischief. This action of the governor, in addition to the promises of Bishop Taché, made it very difficult to bring Riel to trial for the murder of Scott, although he had returned to Manitoba. He was several times elected to Parliament, but was not allowed to take his seat. Afterwards, when declared an outlaw, he retired to the United States.

Relations with the Western Indians—During the two hundred years that the Hudson's Bay Company's officials had ruled over the vast western territory, they had always maintained the most friendly relations with the Indians. When the Hudson Bay Territory was handed over to the Dominion, the Indians became the wards of the Canadian government, and the same friendly relations were continued. Beginning with 1871, treaties were entered into from time to time with the tribes. These treaties were so framed as to provide for the surrender of Indian lands on terms satisfactory both to the natives and to the government. Provision was made for ample reserves, within which the Indians could reside. Schools were erected, and farm instructors provided. Agricultural implements were also given free of

charge. In addition, each Indian receives an annual payment in cash from the government. The Indians are under the control of the Department of Indian Affairs, with a member of the Dominion Cabinet in charge.

British Columbia Joins the Dominion, 1871.—The Imperial government had been anxious from the first that British Columbia should join with Canada, and plans were laid accordingly. Certain changes were made in the constitution of the colony, and, in 1871, the Legislature expressed a desire to unite with Canada. On July 20th, 1871, British Columbia entered the Canadian Confederation as a full partner. Although the population of the new province was small, she brought to the Dominion rich stores of wealth in her forests, mines, and fisheries. She afforded, too, an outlet to the Pacific and the opportunity to share in the trade of Eastern Asia. But before that opportunity could be seized, and before there could be any real union between the provinces of the East and those of the West, it was necessary to construct a Canadian railway from ocean to ocean. As one of the terms of union with British Columbia, the government of the Dominion agreed to begin such a work within two years and to finish it within ten.

Prince Edward Island Joins the Dominion, 1873.—The extension of the bounds of the Dominion was completed by the admission of Prince Edward Island in 1873 on terms very favourable to that province. Canada paid a large sum to settle the claims of proprietors living in England, who received rents for a large part of the land of the Island. Thus a grievance was removed which had long caused much bitterness, and which had greatly hindered progress.

CHAPTER XXV

DOMESTIC EVENTS

1873-1896

Growing Strength of The Liberal Party.—The party in opposition to the Macdonald government, now usually termed Liberals, had been weak and unorganized at first, but became united and strong under the leadership of Alexander Mackenzie. They vigorously contested the elections of 1872 and with much success, especially in Ontario. The government found their majority reduced in the new House of Commons. They were able, however, to pass through Parliament a measure which granted a charter to build the Pacific Railway to a company headed by Sir Hugh Allan, and which gave to the new company large amounts of money and land.

The Pacific Scandal.—In 1873 the country was startled by the grave charge made in Parliament that the charter granted to Sir Hugh Allan had been secured by bribes to the government. A commission of judges was appointed to examine into the truth of this accusation. It reported that, although there was no evidence to show that the charter had been corruptly granted, Sir Hugh Allan had contributed very large sums to the election funds of the Conservative party, and that some of this money had passed through the hands of several of the ministers. While it was well known that both political parties had long been accustomed to spend large amounts in elections, the acceptance of so much money from a public contractor roused such widespread indignation

that Sir John A. Macdonald resigned without waiting for a hostile vote in the House of Commons.

The Mackenzie Administration.—The Governor-general called on the leader of the opposition to form a new ministry. Mr. Mackenzie's career shows how much may be accomplished by a man of character and determination. At an early age the lad left school to learn the trade of stone-cutting, an occupation which he followed for some time after coming from Scotland to Upper Canada. In his new home, his uprightness, industry, and energy soon attracted notice. He took a keen interest in politics and, in 1861, was elected to Parliament. Now, the stonemason had become the Prime Minister of Canada. Parliament being dissolved early in 1874, the elections gave the Liberals a large majority in the new House of Commons. The Conservatives, however, controlled the Senate and were thus able to defeat some of the measures proposed by the ministry. Among those which became law was one creating a Supreme Court of Canada to try law cases appealed from the various provinces. Another was the Ballot Act, enabling the electors at the Dominion elections to cast their votes in secret and without interference of any kind.



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

In 1876 the Intercolonial Railway, the building of which by the government was one of the terms of Confederation, was opened from Halifax to Rivière du Loup, where it joined with the Grand Trunk system. It was thus a connecting link between the provinces on the St. Lawrence and those on the Atlantic, and gave the former for the first time a winter outlet to the sea within Canadian territory. Sir Hugh Allan's company having given up their charter, Mr. Mackenzie proceeded with the Canadian Pacific road as a government work. Progress, however, was so slow that British Columbia grew discontented and finally sent a deputation to the Imperial government to protest against the delay. Lord Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary, succeeded in arranging terms acceptable to both sides. It was agreed that a waggon road and telegraph line should be constructed along the line of the proposed railway, that a local railway should be built on Vancouver Island, and that the trans-continental railway should be opened for traffic between Lake Superior and the Pacific Coast not later than December 30th, 1890. But the Premier still delayed, so that when Lord Dufferin, the Governor-general, visited British Columbia in 1876, he had to use all his diplomacy to soothe the wrath of the people. However, as we shall see, the railway was completed long before the date agreed upon by the "Carnarvon Terms."

The National Policy.—During the period of the Mackenzie administration there was a grievous depression in trade in Canada as well as in Britain, the United States, and other countries. In previous years, when times were brisk, the production of goods had gradually increased beyond the quantity that could be sold. Prices fell, and profits were replaced by losses. Many enterprises failed, and many labourers and mechanics were thrown out of

work. The public revenue declined, the government being forced to announce year after year that it was far exceeded by the public expenditure.

As a remedy for these troubles Sir John A. Macdonald proposed to raise the customs duties, or "tariff," on such imports as might be manufactured in Canada. He claimed that this "National Policy," as it was called, would increase public revenue, would protect Canadian manufacturers against unfair competition from the United States and other countries, and would thus develop industry at home and give employment to idle workmen. The people had an opportunity to express their opinions at the general elections, which were held in 1878. The Liberals suffered a defeat almost as decisive as that of the Conservatives in 1874. Mr. Mackenzie resigned office and was succeeded by Sir John A. Macdonald.

When Parliament met in 1879, the new government at once submitted proposals looking towards putting the National Policy into force. There was strong opposition in the House of Commons, but there was no difficulty in passing the bill. The Conservatives thus became identified with the policy of protection of industries. The improvement in trade which followed was looked upon by them as the direct result of the National Policy they had advocated.

Shortly after the change of government, Lord Dufferin yielded the Governor-general's chair to the Marquis of Lorne. The Marquis was accompanied by his wife, the Princess Louise, Queen Victoria's third daughter. Both received a most loyal and enthusiastic welcome from the people of Canada.

The Canadian Pacific Railway.—In 1880 Sir John A. Macdonald announced that the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway would no longer be continued as a

government work, if a private company could be induced to undertake the task. Before the end of the year an offer was received from a group of capitalists, headed by George Stephen and Donald A. Smith of Montreal, to complete the road in ten years, and to operate it thereafter, in return for a grant of \$25,000,000 and 25,000,000 acres of prairie land. These terms were accepted by the government and were submitted to Parliament. They were finally approved of, in spite of strong opposition from the Liberals.

The new company prosecuted its work with such energy that they were able to complete the railway in five years instead of ten. It was continued eastward from Montreal to St. John, and many branches were built. The beneficial effects of the great work were soon seen. It gave access for the first time to the vast and fertile prairies. Over it there at once began to flow an ever-increasing stream of settlers to occupy the vacant lands of the West, and an ever-increasing stream of wheat to supply the needs of eastern Canada and Great Britain. The road, together with its great steamship lines on the Pacific and the Atlantic, has become a connecting link between the ports of eastern Asia and those of western Europe, and is thus one of the most important commercial routes of the Empire.

In recognition of their great service to Canada and to the Empire, George Stephen and Donald A. Smith were both knighted, and later both were raised to the peerage, the former as Lord Mount Stephen and the latter as Lord Strathcona. The services of Lord Strathcona to Canada were not limited to his connection with the Canadian Pacific Railway. For many years he was High Commissioner for Canada in London, a position which he filled with singular dignity and ability.

Before the Pacific Railway was quite completed, its vital importance as a connecting link between the various parts of Canada was strikingly shown by the occurrences in the North-West, which must now be related.

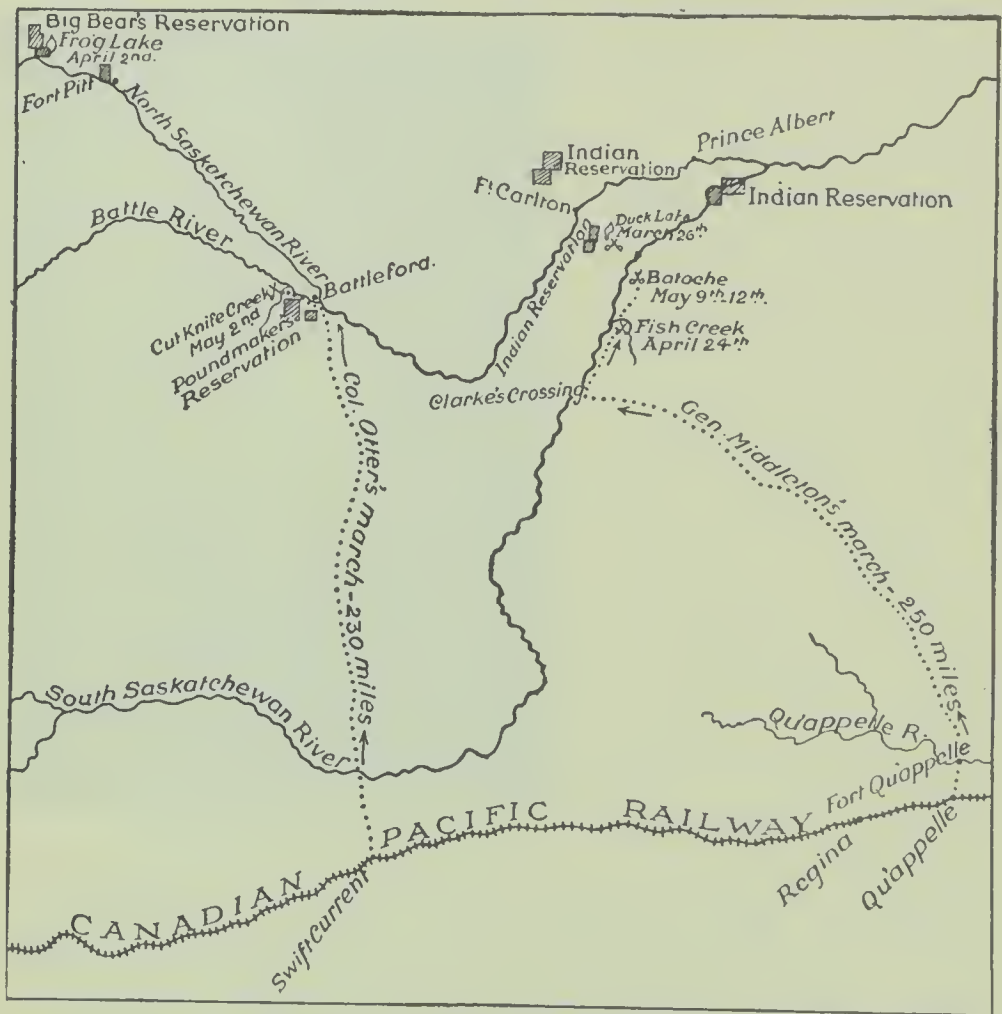
The Saskatchewan Rebellion.—After the rebellion of 1870 the Red River half-breeds received grants of land from the Dominion government. But most of them in Manitoba sold their rights to immigrants and followed the buffalo herds north-westward to the banks of the Saskatchewan, where a number of their people had already located. When surveyors came to open up the surrounding country for settlement, the half-breeds applied for title to the lands on which they had settled. Their demands were unheeded by the gov-



LORD STRATHCONA

ernment. There is no doubt that the government and its officials were very careless and indifferent about the matter. The Territories had at that time no representative in the Dominion Parliament. No attempt was made to dispossess the half-breeds, however, or to interfere with them in any way. Still their discontent grew, and, in 1884, they sent to the United States for Louis Riel to lead them. Pretending to have large claims against the government himself, he fomented the agitation, in

the hope that he might compel their payment. Early in 1885, word was received from the government that the demands of the half-breeds would be granted, but nothing was said of Riel's claims. He soon formed a Provisional government at Batoche, the principal settlement, and persuaded the half-breeds to take up arms.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE SASKATCHEWAN REBELLION

A well-armed body, under Gabriel Dumont, seized the government stores at Duck Lake, a few miles distant, and repulsed with heavy loss a detachment of Mounted Police who had hurried to the rescue.

The Mounted Police, numbering five hundred, was

the only military force in the entire North-West, and the scattered settlements would have been in serious danger had the various Indians tribes declared a general war against the whites, as Riel had urged them to do. They had always been treated justly and kindly by the Dominion government, however, and for the most part were persuaded to remain quiet. But several bands along the North Saskatchewan rose, when they heard of the half-breeds' victory at Duck Lake.

One party, under a chief named Big Bear, massacred the settlers at Frog Lake, and then attacked the little company of Mounted Police at Fort Pitt. They were beaten off, but the garrison, too weak to make a long resistance, retreated by boat down the river to Battleford. Near by there was a strong Indian force under Chief Poundmaker. Some of the braves had been plundering and murdering in the neighbourhood, but Poundmaker had not yet ventured to attack the town itself.

Meanwhile, Canada had been roused by the defiance of her authority and by the peril of her citizens in the West.

There were now no Imperial troops in the country west of Halifax, but thousands of volunteers sprang to arms at the call of the government. It was indeed fortunate that the Canadian Pacific Railway was so near completion as to be able to carry troops rapidly to the West. Delay would have been disastrous, as many of the Indians would undoubtedly have joined Riel, had he been able to gain any further successes.

Three columns were soon ready to move. General Mid-



BIG BEAR

dleton moved forward from Qu'Appelle to attack Batoche and relieve Prince Albert; Colonel Otter advanced from Swift Current to Battleford, and General Strange from Calgary to Edmonton. There were no railways that could be made use of by the troops. At Fish Creek and Batoche Middleton met and defeated the rebels, while Otter suffered a severe reverse at Cut-Knife Creek.



MOUNTED POLICE AND INDIANS

After the victory at Batoche, Riel surrendered, but Dumont escaped to the United States. When the news of Riel's overthrow came, Poundmaker was glad to surrender himself and to sue for pardon. Big Bear was chased into the northern swamps, where the troops did not follow him, but, when starvation forced his diminished band southward again, he and all his braves were captured by the Mounted Police.

The quelling of the rebellion, thus ended, called forth five thousand citizen soldiers representing all parts of the country. Their united efforts for their country's good gave new strength to the influences of sympathy and patriotism which were steadily moulding the scattered provinces of the Dominion into a strong and united whole. The attention of Canadians was drawn, as never before, to the wonderful extent and wealth of their western heritage. To Riel, the author of two rebellions, stern justice was meted out. After a thorough and impartial trial, he was found guilty of treason and was hanged at Regina. The right of the half-breeds to the special land grants they had asked for was recognized, the North-West Territories were given representation in the Dominion Parliament, and the North-West Mounted Police were at once increased in numbers in order to give adequate protection to the settlers.

The Death of Sir John A. Macdonald.—Until 1891 Sir John A. Macdonald remained in office, but his strength, over-taxed in the election of that year, at last gave way, and he died in June at the age of seventy-seven. For more than thirty years he had been a Cabinet minister, and Prime Minister for more than twenty of them. He passionately loved his country, in whose great future he had unbounded faith, and in whose best interests, as he understood them, he laboured with unwearied devotion. Among "the makers of Canada" his name will always hold a lofty place.

Changes.—Many changes in the ranks of public men followed the death of Sir John A. Macdonald. His former rival, Mr. Mackenzie, whose health had never recovered from the strain of his five years' service as Premier, passed away in 1892. Macdonald's successor, Sir John Abbott, died a few months later. The next

Premier was Sir John Thompson, a Nova Scotian lawyer, whose high character and fine abilities had quickly brought him into prominence. For his services in the Bering Sea Arbitration he was made a member of the British Privy Council in 1894, but died at Windsor Castle a few hours after he had been sworn in. Sir Mackenzie Bowell, a senator from Ontario, now became leader of the government. In 1896 he made way for Sir Charles Tupper, who for some years had been representing Canada in London as High Commissioner.

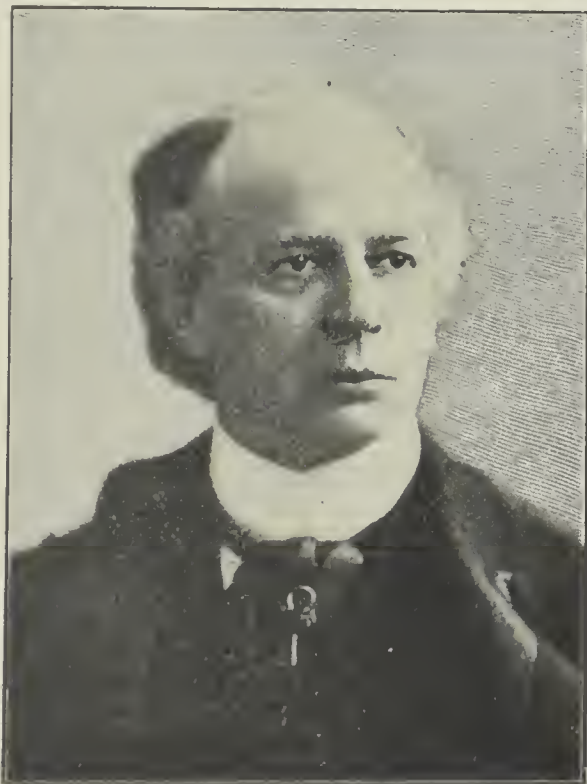
A Liberal Triumph.—These changes and losses naturally weakened the Conservative government. Moreover, its reputation suffered from the exposure of abuses which had gradually crept into the management of some of the public departments. Trouble now arose with Manitoba. An Act passed by the provincial Legislature had abolished separate schools for Roman Catholics, and its legality had been upheld by the courts. The latter appealed to the Dominion government to have the schools restored, on the ground that they had been guaranteed by the Manitoba Act of 1870. When the provincial authorities refused to make any concessions, the Dominion government introduced a "Remedial Bill" to compel them to do so, but failed to carry it through Parliament before the time for dissolution had come. The Liberals strongly opposed the measure as an interference with provincial rights, and so gained support from the English-speaking provinces in the elections of 1896, while the popularity of their leader, Mr. Wilfrid Laurier, in his own province of Quebec gave them a great majority there. On the resignation of Sir Charles Tupper, the Governor-general summoned Laurier to form a government.

CHAPTER XXVI

DOMESTIC EVENTS

1896-1914.

The Laurier Administration.—The new Prime Minister, Mr. Wilfrid Laurier, was a French-Canadian Roman Catholic. Like his predecessor, Macdonald, an English-speaking Protestant, he strove to smooth over



SIR WILFRID LAURIER

sectional and religious jealousy and to promote the unity of the Canadian people. For such a task he was well fitted by his broad sympathies and the many lovable qualities of his character. He was thus able in a very short time to come to an agreement with the government of Manitoba in regard to the public schools of that province. The local government consent-

ed to allow Roman Catholic children at the close of the school day to receive instruction in their own religion, and, in cases where there was an attendance of

a certain number of Roman Catholic children, a teacher of that faith should be employed.

On account of the rapid development of the country at the beginning of the twentieth century, increased railway facilities were needed, especially in the west. The building of the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern are referred to elsewhere. Some thought that such great enterprises should be under government control and carried on in the public interest. Others insisted that government control would introduce party politics, and wasteful and unbusinesslike methods of management. The Laurier government adopted a middle course. In 1904 it carried a bill through Parliament establishing a Railway Commission, which was given power to regulate both passenger and freight rates on the railways of Canada, and generally to protect the interests of the public in case of dispute. The Commission, which at first consisted of three members, was later enlarged to six, and was given a similar power over express, telephone, and telegraph companies. All such companies were to be regarded as for public service as well as for private profit.

Another important measure, passed in 1907, was the Industrial Disputes Act. It provided that disputes between the management of a firm or company and its workers should be submitted to a Board of Investigation and Conciliation arranged for by the government. The object, of course, was to effect a friendly settlement, without recourse to a "strike" by the workers' trade union or a closing down of work, or "lock-out," by the management. Unfortunately, the success of the Board of Conciliation has been somewhat impaired by the fact that there is no provision made in the Act to compel either party to the dispute to accept its decisions.

The thousands of government employees in Ottawa and throughout the country are collectively known as the Civil Service. Political pressure was often applied to the government to secure the appointment of men, not so much on account of personal merit as for party services. Such a custom did not make for efficiency. To improve matters, the government established a Civil Service Commission. This body was given control of appointments and promotions in certain departments of the service, and was largely independent of political influence. Its scope and powers have been recently greatly extended.

The North-West Territories.—When the province of Manitoba was carved from the Hudson Bay Territory, the remaining portion was organized into the North-West Territories. For a time its government was placed in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, assisted by an appointed Council, but later the Territories were given a Lieutenant-Governor of their own. In 1875 provision was made by Act of the Dominion Parliament for representation of the people on the Council, but the first election was not held until 1881. Six years later the representatives of the people numbered fourteen out of a Council of twenty. In 1881 the Council was replaced by a Legislative Assembly of twenty-five members, with an Advisory Council of four members chosen from the Assembly, who were to advise the governor in matters relating to finance.

For the next ten years the old struggle for responsible government was fought over again in the North-West Territories. It was not until 1897 that it was finally decided that the Executive Council, which now replaced the Advisory Council, should be in every way responsible for their acts to the Legislative Assembly. Mr. F.

W. G. Haultain, who was largely responsible for the triumphant issue of the struggle, became the first Premier of the North-West Territories and continued in office until 1905.

Immigrants were now pouring into the country in ever-increasing numbers from the eastern provinces, the United States, the British Isles, and other European countries. The population was now half a million. The cost of administration outstripped the revenue derived from the grants from the Dominion government. This money was not wholly under the control of the Territorial government. There was, therefore, a strong agitation for the establishment of provinces with full local self-government.

In 1905 Sir Wilfrid Laurier carried through Parliament the "Autonomy Bill", as it was called, creating two new provinces—Saskatchewan and Alberta. They divided between them in nearly equal parts the region extending from Manitoba to British Columbia, and from the United States boundary to the 60th parallel of latitude. The Dominion government retained control over the public lands, but, by way of compensation, made largely increased grants to the provincial revenues. One section of the bill guaranteed the rights of such separate denominational schools as had already been established. This met with bitter opposition in Parliament from those who were opposed to separate schools on principle and from those who held that the question should be left to the decision of the provinces themselves. Finally it was decided that separate schools should be maintained, but that they should be in every respect under the same control and supervision as the public schools. The provinces were formally proclaimed on September 1st, 1905.

In dealing with the North-West Territories, we must not forget the North-West Mounted Police. Organized in 1873, its strength at first consisted of three hundred men; afterwards, as its field of operation widened, its numbers were increased. By this splendid body of men law and order were maintained over a vast area. During the pioneer days its services to the country were incalculable. Recently the force was incorporated into the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, with a jurisdiction extending all over Canada.

The Yukon Territory.—In 1896 mining prospectors roaming through the far North-West made rich finds of gold in the valley of the Klondike River, a tributary of the Yukon. Thither rushed a horde of fortune-hunters from all parts of the country. Soon miners by thousands were everywhere at work washing the fine grains of gold from the deposits of mud, sand, and gravel. There were among them the wildest and most unruly spirits of a continent. But the majesty of the law was represented by the North-West Mounted Police, sent into that region by the Dominion government. So firm was the authority of this famous body of men, that life and property were as safe on the Yukon as on the St. Lawrence or the English Thames. The district was soon organized into a territory, with its capital at Dawson City. By an Act of the Dominion Parliament passed in 1918, the Yukon Territory is now administered by an official known as the Gold Commissioner and a Council partly elective and partly appointed.

The Quebec Tercentenary.—In 1908 the three hundredth anniversary of the founding, in 1608, of the City of Quebec and the French colony of Canada was celebrated with great ceremony and magnificence. English

and French joined with equal heartiness in thus honouring the memory of the noble Champlain, the "Father of Canada." Many distinguished visitors from abroad were in



SIR ROBERT BORDEN

attendance, the king being represented by his son, George, Duke of York, afterwards King George V.

Reciprocity and a Conservative Victory.—In the elections of 1900, 1904, and 1908 the Liberals obtained large majorities over the opposition. Sir Charles Tupper, the leader of the latter, retired in 1900 on account of advancing age. His successor was Robert Laird Borden of Halifax. A prominent member of the Commons for fourteen years, he had

earned a reputation for integrity, broad-mindedness, and solid ability. He quietly and patiently set himself to reorganize the Conservative party and gained its entire confidence and loyal support. In 1911 he was able to lead it to victory.

There was at this time an agitation both in Canada and the United States for a lower customs tariff and freer trade conditions. The movement was strongest in the agricultural regions of the West. It was claimed that such a policy would lower prices, particularly of manufactured goods, and so bring down the cost of living. This had long been favoured by many in the Liberal party. The government had already carried it into effect by its preferential tariff on imports from Britain.

An agreement was reached by the representatives of

Canada and the United States for reciprocity in natural products. When the pact was submitted to the Canadian Parliament in 1911, it met with strong opposition. It was argued that the wheat of the west would be diverted to the United States and that the Canadian railways, which had in the past carried the grain eastward, would be ruined. The manufacturers thought that reciprocity in manufactured goods would follow, and that their interests would thereby suffer. Many more feared that Canada, the smaller country, would, under the proposed policy, become first commercially and then politically dependent on the United States. When the question was transferred from Parliament to the people for decision, a great majority was returned against the measure. Sir Wilfrid Laurier promptly resigned. The Governor-general at once entrusted Mr. Borden with the task of forming an administration. The new Premier was able to gather round him a strong Cabinet,

Extension of Provincial Boundaries.—The first important measure carried through Parliament by the new government was one dealing with provincial boundaries. The boundaries of the province of Manitoba were extended northward to the sixtieth parallel and north-eastward to Hudson Bay. The portion of the North-West Territories lying to the east of Manitoba was united to Ontario, while the whole of the great district of Ungava was given to the province of Quebec. Of the North-West Territories there remained only the area between the 60th parallel and the Arctic Ocean, together with the islands of the north. This district is now under the direct control of the Dominion government.

CHAPTER XXVII

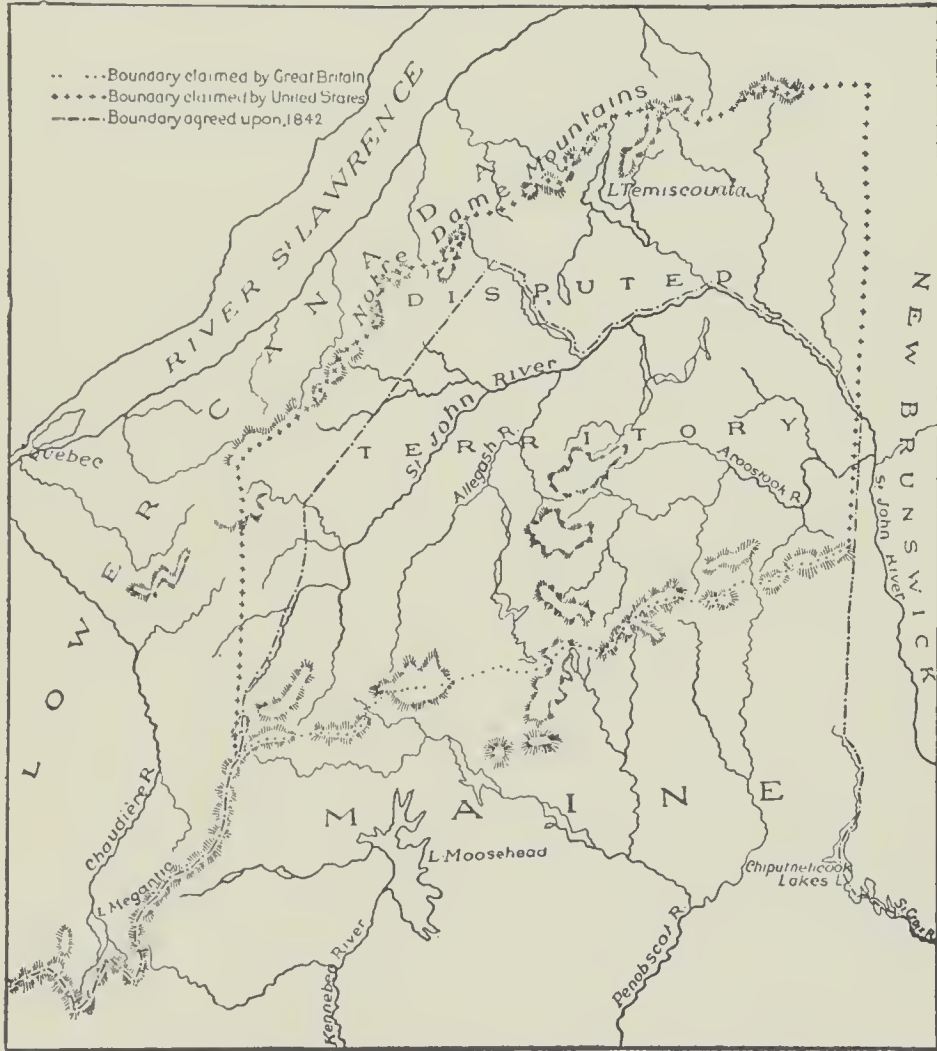
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Powers Retained by the Mother-Country.—While surrendering to the various Dominions the control of affairs purely pertaining to themselves, Britain has always retained the right to disallow any Acts of their Parliaments which she thought injurious to the interests of the Empire as a whole. Similarly, she has kept in her own hands the settlement of disputes arising between the Dominions and foreign nations, while at the same time she has continued to protect them with the power of her army and navy. Prior to Confederation Canada had but little to say in connection with treaties that concerned either her boundaries or her welfare. Since that time, however, her influence has greatly increased. For instance, in a commercial treaty negotiated with France in 1907, Canada was represented by two of her own Cabinet ministers acting with the British ambassador to France. At present, it is hardly possible that any treaty in which Canada is interested would be entered into between Great Britain and any foreign power unless Canada had been consulted beforehand.

The Rush-Bagot Treaty. 1817.—A treaty, which was to have in the future a great influence on the relations between Canada and the United States, was entered into in 1817 between the United States and Great Britain, the former country being represented by Richard Rush and the latter by Sir Charles Bagot. By the terms of the treaty the armaments of both countries on the Great

Lakes were limited. The treaty has, of course, been modified from time to time to provide for revenue cutters and training ships, but its practical result has been that on the international waters there are now no ships of war belonging to either country.

The Ashburton Treaty, 1842.—Much ill-feeling between



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE NEW BRUNSWICK BOUNDARY DISPUTE

Canada and the United States was roused by the long-standing dispute over the boundary between New Brunswick and Maine. The language of the Treaty of Versailles, which defined the line, was so loose and

inaccurate that it was afterwards found most difficult to interpret. The United States claimed that the boundary ran north of the upper valley of the River St. John. Britain claimed that it ran south of that stream. When lumbermen and settlers began to enter the district in question, the dispute grew more serious and seemed at one time likely to be settled only by war. Fortunately peaceful counsels prevailed. Commissioners were chosen to fix the boundary and to settle other questions at the same time. Lord Ashburton represented Great Britain, and the interests of the United States were entrusted to Daniel Webster, one of her foremost statesmen. An agreement known as the Ashburton Treaty was reached in 1842, whereby the region in dispute was divided, the United States being given the larger and more valuable share. Canadians were naturally disappointed in the result, as a great wedge of foreign territory was thereby thrust northward between Lower Canada and New Brunswick. The Ashburton Treaty also provided that fugitives accused of the more serious crimes should be returned by the country in which they had sought refuge. Britain would not, however, consent to include American runaway slaves in this list, as she held that the touch of British soil had made them free.

The Oregon Treaty, 1846.—There still remained unsettled the ownership of a much larger area lying between the Pacific Ocean and the Rocky Mountains. To the east of that range, the 49th parallel of north latitude, with the exception of a peculiar jog at the Lake of the Woods, had been accepted by the London Convention of 1818 as the boundary between the British territory in the West and the United States. Westward of the mountains the British claimed as far south as the 42nd parallel, and the Americans as far north as the line of

54° 40'. The dispute over the territory became so bitter that the two countries were almost plunged into war. Common sense prevailed in the end, and it was agreed in 1846 by the Oregon Treaty that the boundary should be continued along the 49th parallel to the sea, but that the Island of Vancouver should be wholly British. The course of the line through the strait dividing this island from the mainland was not clearly defined and gave rise to further trouble at a later date.

The Reciprocity Treaty, 1854.—As has been already mentioned, the adoption of Free Trade by Great Britain in 1846 greatly injured for a time the commerce of Canada. But Canadians were now free to seek other markets for their products. All saw the advantage of freer trade with the United States, and some, angry with the mother-country for her seeming indifference to colonial interests, urged annexation as the only means of obtaining it. Lord Elgin, whose great aim was to remove all causes of discontent in Canada and thereby to strengthen the loyalty of her people to the mother-country, strove for years to convince the government of the United States that freer trade would benefit the larger country as well as the smaller. At last he was successful, and, as representative of Great Britain, he signed in 1854 a Reciprocity Treaty at Washington.

Under the terms of the Reciprocity Treaty the products of the two countries from the farm, the forest, the mine, and the sea were to be exchanged free of duty. Lake Michigan was opened to Canadian vessels, and the St. Lawrence, with its canals, to American vessels. The people of each country were free to fish in the other's coast waters. The treaty was to continue in force for ten years, after which period either country could terminate it by giving a year's notice of its inter-

tion. The treaty continued in force until 1866, when it was terminated by the action of the United States.

The Treaty of Washington, 1871.—After the termination of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866, Americans continued to fish in Canadian waters in spite of the protests of the Dominion government. When, at last, cruisers began to seize vessels caught trespassing in Canadian waters, there was a great outcry in the United States. Both Great Britain and the United States claimed and both had occupied the island of San Juan, lying in the Strait of Juan De Fuca. Finally, there were the claims of the United States against Great Britain for damage done by the steamship *Alabama* to their shipping during the Civil War between the Northern and the Southern States, and the claims of Canada against the United States for damage done by the Fenians.

Commissioners met at Washington in 1871 to reach a settlement on these questions. One of the British representatives was Sir John A. Macdonald, who was present to watch over the special interests of Canada. In the agreement finally reached, Canada granted to the United States the use of the St. Lawrence and its canals in return for the free navigation of the Yukon River and Lake Michigan. Canadian fish were to be admitted free into the United States, and the waters of each country were to be open to the fishermen of the other for a period of twelve years. As the Canadian fisheries were much the more valuable, the United States consented to pay for their use a sum to be fixed by arbitration. In 1877 a court sitting at Halifax agreed upon \$5,500,000 as a fair amount.

In spite of the protests of Sir John A. Macdonald, Canada was forced to drop her Fenian claims, but as compensation the British government agreed to loan to

the Dominion a large sum of money to be used in the building of canals and railways. The *Alabama* claims were submitted to arbitration. A tribunal, in which various foreign nations were represented, afterwards met in Switzerland and awarded the United States the sum of \$15,500,000. The question of the ownership of the island of San Juan was left to the German Emperor, who decided in favour of the United States.

Sir John A. Macdonald's consent to the terms of the Washington Treaty which affected Canada was given subject to the approval of the Canadian Parliament. He was able to secure that approval, although there was a strong feeling both in and out of Parliament that Canadian interests had been unduly sacrificed.

The Atlantic Fisheries.—When the United States secured her independence in 1783, her fishermen, of course, lost the right to fish in British territorial waters, that is, within three miles of the coast-line. Various attempts were made to come to an agreement, as the Americans still persisted in fishing within the forbidden limit. By the London Convention of 1818 certain privileges were granted to the American fishermen, while both the Reciprocity Treaty and the Washington Treaty had the effect of settling the troublesome question for the time being. When the arrangement made by the Washington Treaty expired in 1885, the old controversy was revived. At present American fishermen who purchase a license are allowed the use of the Canadian fisheries.

The Bering Sea Dispute.—Meanwhile, the taking of seals in Bering Sea was a growing industry engaged in by many vessels of both nations. The United States tried to exclude Canadians on the ground that seals visiting the shores of Alaska were American property.

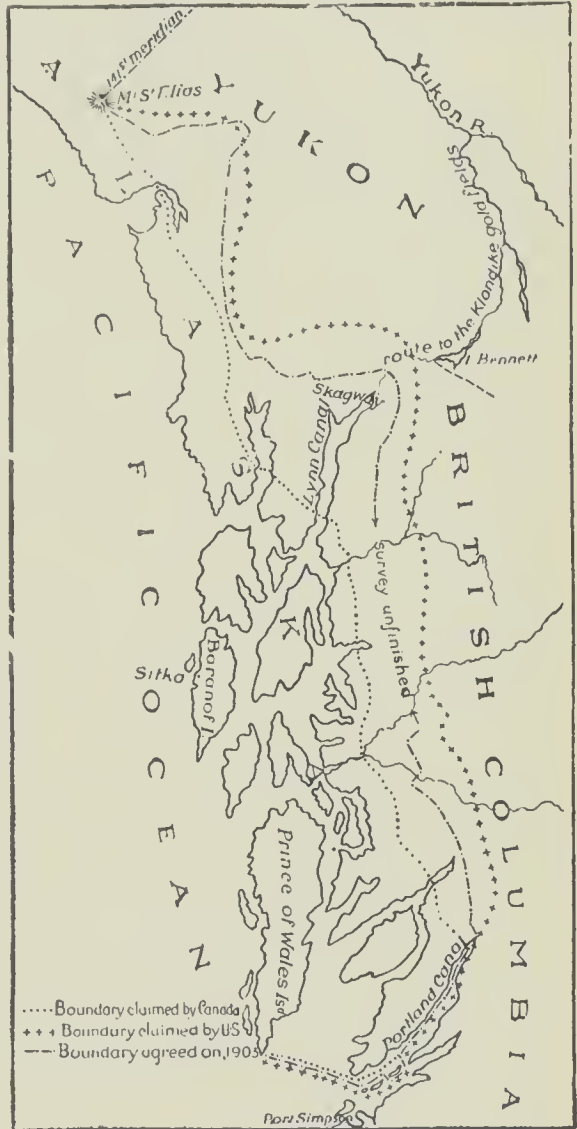
A number of vessels, which were catching seals many miles from shore, were seized. Great Britain strongly upheld the Canadian claim that Bering Sea was open to the world. At last both nations agreed to submit the question to arbitration. The court met at Paris in 1893, Sir John Thompson, who was at the time Premier of Canada, being one of the British representatives. The decision was in favour of Canada and obliged the United States to pay damages to the owners of vessels seized. At the same time, both nations were required to enforce certain regulations to prevent the complete destruction of the seal herds.

The Alaskan Boundary.—The purchase of Alaska by the United States and of the North-West by Canada opened up a dispute as to the boundary between the two territories. By a previous treaty between Great Britain and Russia, it had been agreed that the line should follow the one hundred and forty-first meridian of west longitude from the Arctic Ocean to Mount St. Elias. From that point southward it was to continue along the summit of the mountain range parallel to the sea as far as Portland Channel, or Canal, but at no point was it to be farther than thirty miles from the ocean. The question with regard to this latter section was what range should be followed, and whether the thirty miles should be measured from the islands which fringe the shore, or from the heads of the narrow inlets which penetrate far inland. The discovery of gold in Alaska and in the Yukon district made a settlement of the boundary more necessary, but at the same time more difficult, as the route to the gold fields lay across the disputed territory, and its importance was thereby increased.

The government of the United States refused to leave the question to the decision of a third party, but in 1903

it was referred to a Commission consisting of three representatives from each country. Two of the British members of the Commission were Canadians. The Commission supported in the main the claims of the United States, and that country was awarded the larger part of the disputed territory, in spite of the protest of the Canadian representatives.

International Commissions.—The marking out of the line laid down by the Alaskan decision was carried out by a Boundary Commission representing both nations. This Commission also fixed more accurately the location of the 49th parallel, forming the boundary between Canada and the United States, and of the line from the Lake of the Woods to Lake Superior. The International Waterways Commission, which had been formed in 1903, and which had already been settling questions arising out of the use of the boundary waters, completed its task by laying down the line from the western shore of Lake



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE ALASKAN
BOUNDARY DISPUTE

Superior through the Great Lakes and their connecting streams to the 45° parallel. Finally, by an arrangement made between Great Britain and the United States in 1909 and approved by the Parliament of Canada in 1911, an International Joint Commission, which includes three representatives from each country, was created to decide all questions in dispute relating to the use of the water in the streams at or near the international boundary.

CHAPTER XXVIII

CANADA AND THE EMPIRE

Growing Autonomy.—By the British North America Act, as we have seen, only two important restrictions were laid on the powers of the Dominion. The Imperial government reserved the right to arrange treaties between Canada and foreign nations. It retained the power to disallow, at the instance of the Governor-general, any Act of the Canadian Parliament which might in any way harm the interests of the Empire as a whole. These limitations have proved more nominal than real. In drawing up such treaties, as we have also seen, the Imperial authorities have always consulted and usually followed the wishes of Canada. In 1876 the Marquis of Lorne, who was at that time Governor-general, not wishing to take the responsibility of signing the measure, deferred a bill of the Canadian Parliament for the consideration of the Crown. He was directed to accept the advice of his Canadian ministers. This precedent has been followed ever since.

Unity of Spirit.—Though exercising complete control in her own sphere, Canada has shown no desire to sever the ties that still bind her to the motherland—community of race, language, political ideas, and loyalty to the Crown. These feelings seem to grow stronger as the legal bond becomes weaker.

One of the strongest ties binding together all parts of the Empire has been the feelings of love and loyalty inspired by the sovereigns. Victoria the Good was re-

garded by all as the mother of her people as well as the queen of the realm. This devotion of her subjects was strikingly shown during the ceremonies of her Diamond Jubilee, which celebrated the completion of the sixtieth year of her reign in 1897. In the most remarkable procession that the world had ever seen, representatives from nearly forty lands beyond the sea joined with those



KING GEORGE V

of the mother-country in escorting the queen to St. Paul's Cathedral in London to give thanks to God for His blessings on her and on her long and glorious reign.

The death of Victoria in 1901 and the coronation of her son Edward VII in 1902 gave further occasion for the display of the loyalty and regard felt by the people of Canada for the Crown and what it represents. George V succeeded his father in 1910. He had already

travelled widely throughout the Empire. No former ruler was so familiar with the peoples and problems of the Overseas Dominions. His blameless life, his simple courtesy, his devotion to the common welfare make him a model sovereign of a free people. Nor is his heir likely to play a different part when he is on the throne. Edward, Prince of Wales, after serving with credit at the

Front in the Great War, visited Canada in 1919. During an extended tour throughout the country, he mingled freely with all the people, and by his modest bearing, his boyish enthusiasm, and his genuine kindliness won his way to every heart.

To secure unity of action in matters of common interest, without interfering with the principle of local independence, meetings of representatives of the various parts of the Empire were called from time to time by the Imperial government to discuss such questions as internal trade and communication, Imperial defence, and foreign policy. In 1894 a Colonial Conference met at Ottawa. Two important results were secured. One was the construction of an ocean cable from Canada to Australia and New Zealand, a scheme long advocated by Sir Sandford Fleming, an eminent Canadian engineer. The world was thus encircled by an "all red" line, touching only at British possessions. The other result was the decision of the Laurier government to reduce the Canadian customs duties on British goods by one-quarter, afterwards by one-half.



EDWARD, PRINCE OF WALES

The next meeting was held in London on the occasion

of Victoria's Jubilee. Cheaper postal rates within the Empire on letters, papers, and magazines were afterwards established. The Conference of 1907 was called Imperial, not Colonial, a change showing the growing importance of the Overseas Dominions of the Empire. It was decided there to appoint a permanent committee on Imperial Defence. At its first meeting in 1909 naval co-operation was the most important question discussed.

Military co-operation had already been effected. When war broke out between the British and the Boers of South Africa in 1899, the justice of Britain's cause was recognized by the Dominions. They offered aid to the motherland, and it was gladly accepted. Canada sent more than eight thousand volunteer soldiers to South Africa. One regiment, raised chiefly in Western Canada, was equipped and maintained by Lord Strathcona, from whom it was called the Strathcona Horse. All the Canadian units acquitted themselves with credit. They took a prominent part in the decisive victory of the war—the capture of Paardeburg.

The greatness of Britain was shown, not so much in winning the war, as in the generosity of the terms of peace. The victor gave the vanquished Boers a very large sum of money in payment of the losses they had sustained. In a short time complete local self-government was granted them. In 1909 they combined with their recent British foes of Natal and Cape Colony to form the Union of South Africa. Five years later, at the outbreak of the Great War, the Union joined the other Dominions in aid of Britain in her hour of need.

Naval Policy.—The Empire's strong arm of defence has ever been her navy. Britain's ships of war guard the ocean highways to every part of her scattered dominions. Heretofore the cost had been entirely borne by the mother-

country. This cost increased by leaps and bounds when Britain was compelled to strengthen greatly her fleet and concentrate it in the North Sea to meet the menace of Germany's rapidly growing sea power.

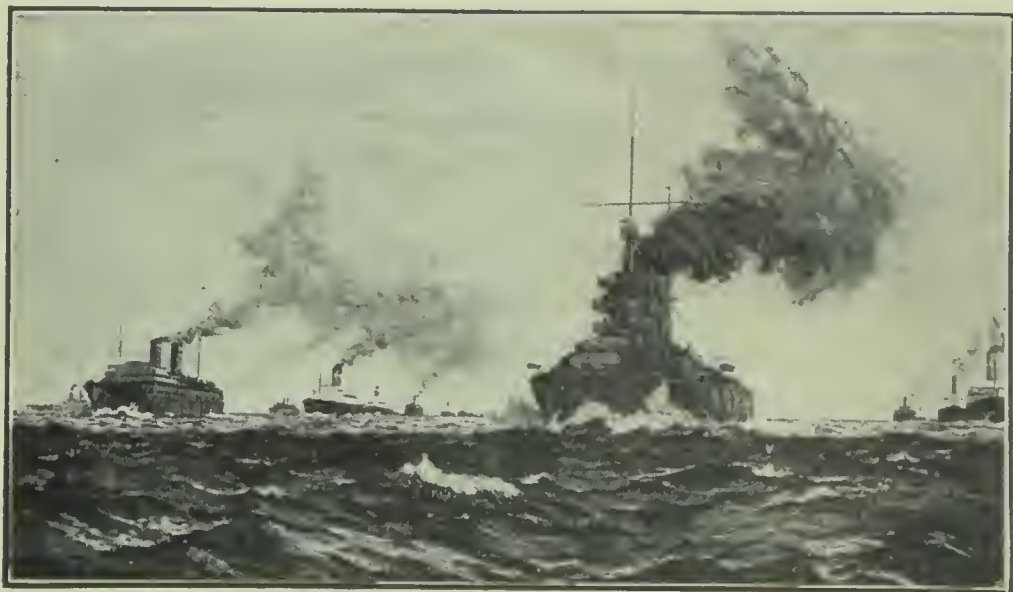
After the Imperial Conference of 1907, which had discussed naval matters, Sir Wilfrid Laurier introduced a measure in Parliament to form a Canadian navy and to establish a Naval College at Halifax. In spite of the opposition of some on the ground that it went too far and of others that it did not go far enough, the bill became law. Two ships, the *Niobe* and the *Rainbow*, were bought from the British government for coastal defence, and \$10,000,000 was voted for the construction of a number of small cruisers of modern type. But before this plan could be carried out, the Laurier government was defeated at the polls in 1911. In the next year, Sir Robert Borden, the new Prime Minister, decided on a more aggressive policy. Adopting the suggestion of the Imperial government, whom he had consulted, he proposed to Parliament that the sum of \$35,000,000 be devoted to the building of three battleships for the British navy. These would help to maintain Britain's supremacy on the sea, which Germany was straining every nerve to overthrow.

The House of Commons passed the Naval Bill, but the Senate refused to accept any change in the policy laid down by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, which had not first been submitted to the people. Matters were at a standstill. Before progress was resumed, a storm burst in Europe. The effects on Canada and Britain were so great that a chapter must be devoted to its story.

CHAPTER XXIX

CANADA AND THE GREAT WAR

Importance of the Great War.— We come now to the Great War of 1914. Well is it named the Great War, for all other contests of which record remains were trivial compared with it. In it fought the eight most



CANADA'S ANSWER

THE FIRST CANADIAN CONTINGENT ON ITS WAY TO ENGLAND

From the Painting by Norman Wilkinson

powerful nations of the world, as well as many lesser peoples. Its battlegrounds stretched from the Atlantic coast of Europe to the Pacific coast of Asia, and from Central Russia to South Africa. Its cost in life was appalling. Its cost in money was so enormous that the figures are meaningless. Its effects have been tremendous, not only in the countries on whose soil it was

fought, but also in Britain and in our own land so far from the scene of conflict. In this titanic struggle Canada took her full share. Every Canadian boy and girl should know the causes of the war, the part played in it by Canada, and the changes it has made in our national life and character.

Causes of the War.—This greatest of all wars was brought on by the ambition of Germany. After her victory over France in 1871 she made marvellous progress in industry, trade, wealth, and science. Her rulers were determined to make her supreme among the nations. Her people were educated to believe that such supremacy was her natural right. Small neighbours, such as Belgium, Holland, and Denmark, should in time be brought under her sway. Strong rivals should be crushed by armed force and swept from her path. For such a purpose all her citizens were trained for war. Her army was made the strongest and best equipped in the world, and her navy grew to be second only to that of Britain. Of the other nations, Austria was her subservient ally. Italy, although formally allied with Germany, remained neutral at the beginning of the war and later fought against her. The nations directly threatened by Germany's ambition naturally drew together. As early as 1896, France and Russia entered into close alliance. Britain refused to be formally allied to either group, but her sympathies and interests both drew her powerfully to the side of France.

Germany had for years exercised a growing influence in Turkey, from whose dominions she hoped in time to strike down British power in Egypt and in India and to check the southward advance of Russia. But between Austria and Turkey were several small states, most of them of the same race and religion as Russia, and, to some

extent, under her protection. Of these the most important was Serbia. If German plans in Turkey were to prosper, Serbia must be removed from the path. Austria also had a good reason for wishing the destruction of Serbia. In 1908 she had annexed Bosnia, a province in which were many Serbs who wished to be under Serbian rather than Austrian rule. So long as Serbia remained an independent state, she would be a constant incentive to revolt within Austrian territory.

In June, 1914, the heir to the Austrian throne visited Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia. There he and his wife were both assassinated by a Bosnian Serb. Austria made this murder a pretext for attacking Serbia, despite the utmost efforts of British, French, and Italian statesmen to avert war. Russia at once armed to protect Serbia, and Germany, as Austria's ally, replied by declaring war on Russia. France, as Russia's ally, was bound to come to her aid.

Why Britain Fought.—Britain, trusting in her navy, had been slow to realize the menace to herself in the ambitious plans and preparations of the great military power of the continent. Germany now strove hard to keep Britain neutral, having no intention of attacking her until she had crushed Russia and France. Britain was under no agreement to come to the aid of these nations and possibly might have fallen into the German trap. But she was, like France and Germany, pledged to maintain the neutrality of Belgium. When, therefore, the Germans, in defiance of solemn treaties, rushed their armies through Belgium to attack France, Britain felt her honour to be at stake, and declared war on August 4th, 1914.

Aid from the Dominions.—The enemy thought that if Britain fought, her Empire would dissolve, that the over-

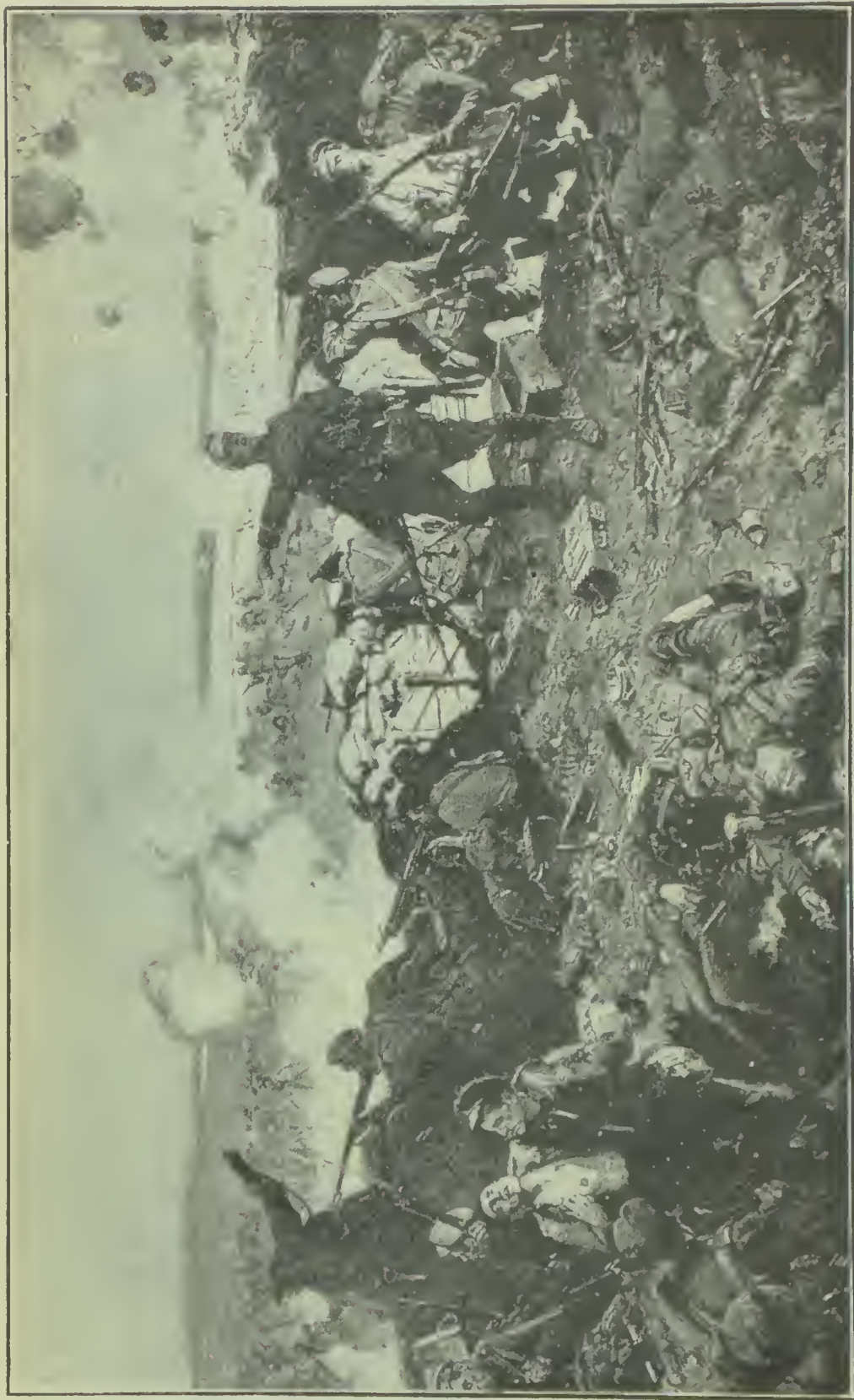
seas Dominions would decline to come to her aid, and that many would seize the opportunity to break away entirely. Never was hope more completely falsified by the event. To every one the justice of the cause against Germany was plain. All realized that the fight was to uphold the sanctity of treaties, to maintain the rights of small nations against the might of dangerous neighbours, to defend personal and political freedom against a military tyranny that sought to subjugate the world. Without exception, Canada, her sister Dominions, India, and the various possessions in the Seven Seas pledged full support to the homeland in the struggle. To put more than two million men into khaki was their answer to the haughty German challenge.



SIR SAM HUGHES

The First Canadian Contingent.—When war came like a thunderbolt, Canada had about 3,000 regular troops scattered over her vast area. Sir Robert Borden, the Prime Minister, offered 20,000 men to the Imperial government. Under the direction of Sir Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia, within three weeks nearly twice that number of volunteers, drawn from every province, had been enlisted, organized into battalions, and transported to Valcartier. There a vast camp had already been prepared for them, and the men were soon in training for their high enterprise.

On October 3rd a great fleet of transports with their guardian ships of war bade farewell to Canadian shores.

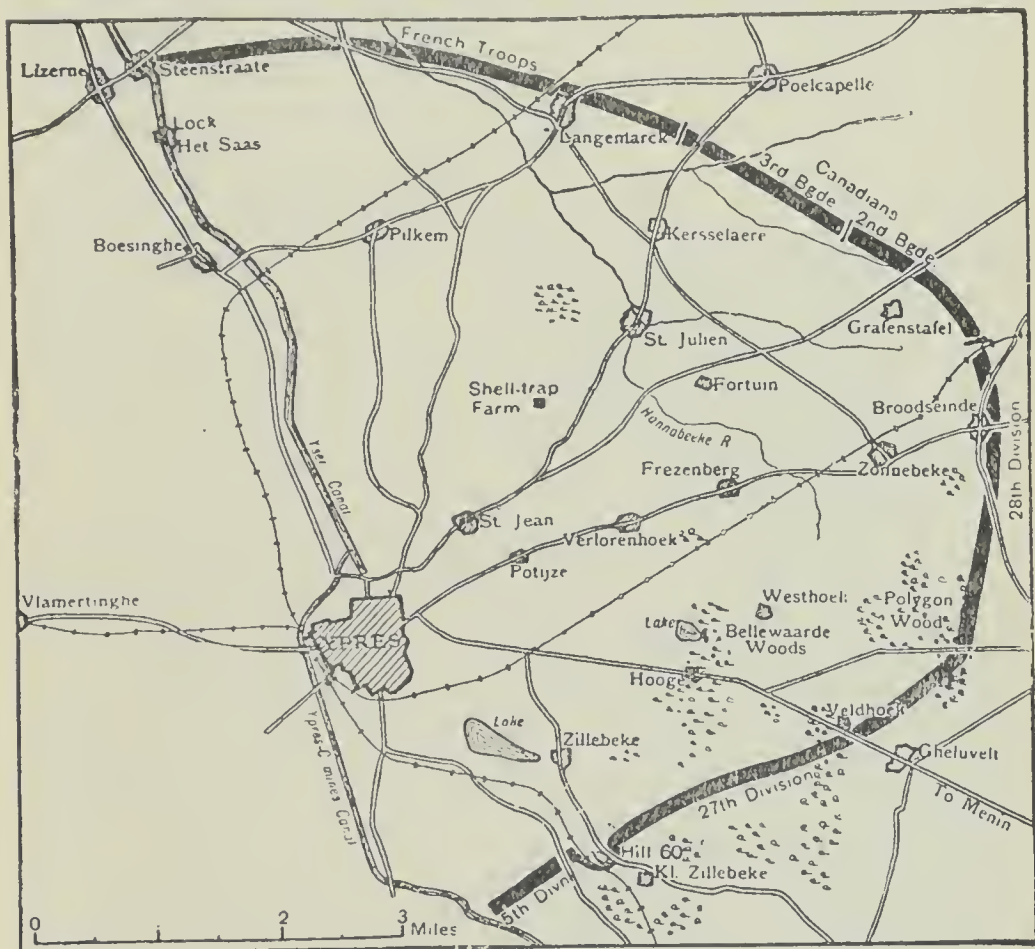


THE SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES

After the Painting by Richard Jack. A. R. A.

On board were 33,000 soldiers. They formed the First Canadian Division, fully armed and equipped, together with a reserve force of nearly two-thirds its own strength. Four months of further drill in the rain and mud of an English winter fitted these men for the grim work of war.

Ypres.—In the first weeks of the war the German armies had overrun most of Belgium and northern France. Since that time the French and British forces had with



SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES

Sketch showing position at the Ypres salient on the morning of April 22nd, 1915

difficulty been able to hold them in check. In April, 1915, the Canadians were beside French Colonial troops near Ypres, a town of Belgian Flanders. There on the 22nd the Germans suddenly launched a tremendous

attack, hoping to burst the barrier, seize the channel ports, and from them strike at England herself. They used poison gas, a new and terrible weapon, contrary to all the rules and usages of warfare.

When the deadly fumes came rolling in dense clouds over the trenches, the French Colonials, choked and blinded, stood firm for a little, then broke and fled with the enemy in close pursuit. The Canadians also suffered, perhaps not so severely. They extended their line, thin though it was, to stop the dangerous gap. It was their first real taste of war. Yet they fought like hardened veterans, and for three long days hurled back attack after attack until reinforcements came. As the British troops poured through on the Canadian left, they raised a hearty cheer for Canada—a spontaneous tribute to the valour of the Canadians, whose gallant work, as the British commander-in-chief reported, “saved the situation.”

What Canadian does not thrill with pride at the name of Ypres! There the raw citizen soldiers of the Dominion were tried as by fire and proved their superiority, man for man, to the best trained fighters of the enemy.

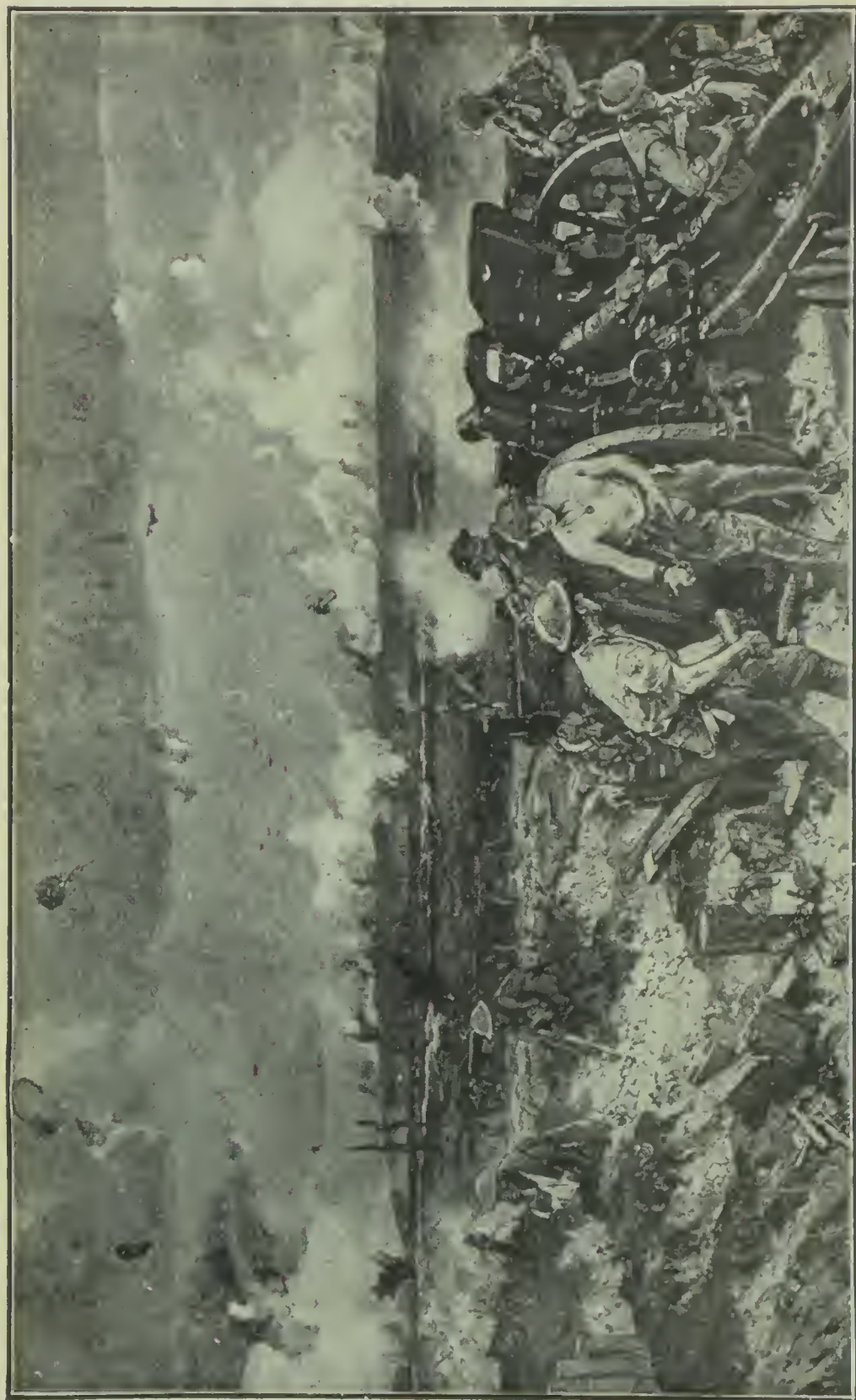
Further Effort.—It was now plain that the war would be a long one. To win it the Allies would need every available man in arms. Canada did her part, her fighting spirit roused by Ypres to stern determination. Volunteers thronged the enlistment booths. Battalion after battalion was sent overseas. By August, 1916, the Canadian Corps in France included four divisions, numbering in all nearly 90,000 fighting men. There were in addition large reserves in England to replace the ever-growing number of killed and wounded. Nearly 13,000 Canadians joined the British Royal Air Force and furnished many of its most distinguished fliers.

Other units rendered valuable aid behind the lines. The vast amount of timber used by the Allied armies was cut and prepared from French and British forests by the Canadian Forestry Corps. The new railways needed for the movement of men and supplies were, for the most part, built by the Canadian Construction and Railway Corps. In all, Canada sent overseas nearly 420,000 men, of whom 160,000 were on active service on the continent at the close of the fighting. Of the forces of the Dominion 220,000 suffered wounds and 55,000 lost their lives.

Leaders.—The Canadian Force was fortunate in its leaders. The first was Lieutenant-General Alderson, an officer of the British regular army. After more than a year's service he was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Sir Julian Byng, who throughout the war proved himself to be one of the most skilful and successful of soldiers. When he was promoted, Canadians were glad to have their Corps under the command of one of their own officers, Lieutenant-General Arthur Currie (afterwards Sir Arthur). He had distinguished himself at Ypres and afterwards in command of the First Division. He was destined to win fresh laurels in his more responsible position.



SIR ARTHUR CURRIE



THE BATTLE OF VINNY RIDGE

From the Painting by Richard Jack, A. R. A.

Three Campaigns.—While describing only Canada's effort in the war, we must not forget for a moment that the other Dominions—Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Newfoundland—India, and the colonies took their full share of the burden. We shall elsewhere refer to the part taken by the motherland.

Noted from the first for their courage, dash, and resourcefulness, the Canadian soldiers became distinguished for their discipline and efficiency, and the corps was ranked with the very best on the Western Front. It has been truly said of them that during the last two years of the war they never lost a gun, never failed to take their objective, or to hold a position which they had won. It is possible to mention only the more important of the many stubborn engagements in which the Canadian troops took their full share.

In 1916 hard battles were fought and heavy losses endured at Sanctuary Wood and at Hooge near Ypres. The corps was then moved southward and took part in the great British offensive along the Somme, especially distinguishing itself at Courcelette.

The name Vimy stands prominent in the Canadian record for 1917. Just as Ypres illustrated the indomitable spirit of our men in defence, so the capture of Vimy Ridge showed them resistless in attack. This important stronghold, thought impregnable by the Germans, was assigned to the Canadian Corps in a general British attack in April. Its success may be described in the words of the British Official Report: "The carrying of this position with so little loss testifies to soundness of plan, thoroughness of preparation, dash, and determination in execution, and devotion to duty on the part of all concerned. The 9th of April will be an historic day in the annals of the British Empire."

Autumn found the Corps again in Flanders. There, through the depths of slimy mud, they forced their way at bloody cost up the slopes of Passchendaele and gained a commanding position from which to start a spring campaign.

When the great German advance of 1918 was stayed, the Canadians contributed their full share to the success of the Allied counter-attack. At the commencement of the battle of Amiens in August they made the longest one-day advance of the war, 14,000 yards. In October they destroyed the enemy's strongest line of defence by the capture of Cambrai, gained only after long, hard fighting and heavy losses. At Mons, where the British army began their heroic retreat in 1914, the Canadians won their final triumph, entering the city in the early morning of November 11th, just before the armistice was signed. Beginning with Ypres and ending with Mons, the Canadian Corps made a record of brilliant feats of arms which need fear no comparison.

War Work at Home.—The spirit of the soldier abroad was loyally sustained by those at home for whom he fought. With the first enlistments came the organization of the Patriotic Fund for helping families thus left in need. The Red Cross Society at once began its great work of providing nurses, hospital supplies, and comforts for the wounded and for our prisoners in the enemy's hands. For these and similar purposes the people of Canada contributed nearly \$100,000,000.

In all such effort the women of Canada stood pre-eminent. Freely giving husbands, brothers, sons, they assumed the family burden, endured the bitter anxiety, and so often the grievous loss with uncomplaining heroism. They worked in the fields, made shells in the factories, nursed in the hospitals, and cared for the

returning soldiers. And so it was in all the countries. In the words of Lloyd George, the Premier of Great Britain, the armies of the Allies would have failed to overcome the enemy in the battle-field but for the heroic self-sacrificing work of the women at home. In recognition of such service, the franchise, or right to vote, was given first to female relatives of our soldiers and then to all women, on the same terms as men.

The war caused a great shortage of food in Europe. In order to maintain the supply for the soldiers and people of Britain and the Allies, Canadians made successful efforts to increase the production of their farms. Strict regulations were made and obeyed to prevent waste and to reduce the consumption in Canada of such foodstuffs as were mostly needed abroad—flour, beef, butter, and bacon.

In the belief that the use of strong drink impairs the strength of a people, the Legislatures of the various provinces passed, in the course of the war, Acts prohibiting its sale within their boundaries. To make this action more effective, the Dominion government, as a war measure, forbade the importation of spirituous liquor or its manufacture in Canada.

In the first period of the war the Allied armies were all too meagrely supplied with munitions. To Britain mainly was given the task of meeting the need. The manufacturers of Canada rallied to her aid. Of the shells used in the last year of the war, more than one-half of the smaller sizes and one-fifth of the larger were made in this country.

The cost of her war efforts has laid a heavy burden on Canada. Additional taxes were levied, which doubled her revenue. It was also necessary to borrow vast sums, so that the public debt has been increased four-fold. For-

tunately most of this money was loaned by our own people. Thus the great amounts to be paid in future years as interest will return to our own pockets.

Military Conscription.—During the first half of the war the strength of the Canadian Expeditionary Force was well maintained by voluntary enlistment. But this supply gradually grew less, while the losses in battle grew greater. Many felt that, much as they disliked enforced military service in itself, it was now necessary for the proper prosecution of the war. For this reason, compulsory service had already been adopted by the liberty-loving people of Great Britain, and also by the United States when they entered the war in 1917.

Sir Robert Borden, leader of the government, introduced the Military Service Act in June, 1917. It provided for the calling out of certain classes of men who were most fit, and who could be best spared, for active service overseas. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, with strong backing from Quebec, opposed this measure of conscription and urged that the question be submitted to popular vote. Nevertheless, the bill received the support of a number of Liberals and passed through both Houses of Parliament by very large majorities. By it more than 80,000 recruits were secured before the end of the war.

Britain's Part in the War.—Proud as we may well be of Canada's war effort, we must not forget that her part was relatively small. In the winning of the war Britain of all the Allies had the largest share. An American admiral has said that the British navy was the foundation stone of the Allied cause. It drove the warships and the merchant ships of Germany from the sea, cut off all her supplies from abroad, and thus gradually weakened her fighting power and finally broke the spirit of her people. By Britain's ships more than twenty-two

millions of men were safely transported overseas to various theatres of the war in three continents. Vast amounts of much needed coal, food, and munitions were supplied to France, Italy, and other allies. Although nine million tons of British shipping were sunk by mine and submarine, there was never a time when supplies did not go forward to the front in sufficient volume.

Britain, an unmilitary nation at the outbreak of the war, raised and trained to the highest point of efficiency an army of nearly 7,000,000 men. On that army the brunt of the fighting fell in the last year. Before the war closed, one in every three of British males of any age were fighting on land, at sea, or in the air. With grim and patient resolution her people, in face of fearful losses, slowly fought their way through disaster and disappointment to a glorious victory at last.

The Results.—The terrible blows struck in the autumn of 1918 by the Allied armies, now reinforced by the Americans, so broke the strength of the Germans, that they sued for peace. The treaty ending the war was signed at Versailles in June, 1919. We may refer to the terms only in such a way as to indicate the general results secured by the victory of the Allied nations.

By the destruction of the military power of Germany the countries of Western Europe were freed from the dark shadow of her threatened domination and were safe to pursue their paths in peace. Germany was shorn of some of her European territory and all her colonies. Austria, at the close of the war, broke up into a number of smaller states. A League of Nations was formed to promote the spirit of brotherhood, to enforce just dealing, and to prevent war among its members.

In the Conference of the Allies which drew up the

Treaty of Peace Sir Robert Borden, as representative of Canada, took a prominent part. The treaty itself was, in his absence, signed by two of his colleagues on behalf of Canada, independently of Great Britain. She has thus been recognized as a distinct nation, as have also her sister Dominions. As distinct nations they have become members of the League.

Yet the Empire has not been dissolved, nor has its spirit of unity been weakened. On the contrary its various peoples, under the influence of a common danger, common effort, and common ideals, have become more strongly cemented together than ever before in spirit and in loyalty to the common Crown.

With their growing sense of nationhood and of loyalty to the Empire, there has come to the people of Canada a quickened sense of duty to their own land. The pride which all feel in the achievements of Canada in the Great War strengthens the resolve to make her noble in times of peace. The example of the soldier who gave his all for country on the battle-field inspires many to better service for the common good. Only with such a spirit can be found a wise solution of the national problems of the near future. The pupils in the schools of Canada to-day will be the citizens moulding her destiny to-morrow. May they so fit themselves for their duty that in their hands her glorious record shall suffer no stain, and that by their guidance she shall be led in the path of that righteousness which alone exalteth a nation!

CHAPTER XXX

RECENT EVENTS

1914-1921

The Government and the War.—As it turned out, it was very fortunate that in 1911 the British government had chosen as Governor-general the Duke of Connaught, the uncle of King George V, an appointment which indicated the growing importance attached by the Imperial authorities to the Dominion as one of the sister nations of the Empire. When the Great War broke out, his wide military experience was of great value to the government in the raising and dispatching to the front of the Canadian Expeditionary Force. In 1916 he returned to England. His successor was the Duke of Devonshire, an English nobleman of long political experience.

It is obvious that the Great War laid an unexpected and tremendous task on the government and especially on the Department of Militia and Defence. On the whole, it must be admitted, the task was well performed. It was inevitable that mistakes should be made and that abuses should creep into the service. Such were properly pointed out and condemned by the opposition. But during the first three years of the war, at least, the vigorous war policy of the government received the hearty support of their political opponents.

Union Government.—In 1917 when the country faced the question of military conscription, there was a growing feeling that the difficulties of the time demanded the strongest government possible, one that would include

the ablest men of both political parties. The Premier invited the Liberals to join with him. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, however, would not consent to support conscription,



THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT

but a number of his most prominent followers accepted the offer. A Union government was thus formed, with Sir Robert Borden as leader. The elections were held in December, 1917, women for the first time voting. The result showed that the country in general strongly upheld the new policy and the new government.

The Union government found many problems to deal with. While the war lasted, it required a supply of men and money without stint.

Peace was hardly less costly. There were hundreds of thousands of soldiers to be returned to Canada and mustered out of the service. Thousands of invalids incapable of any labour had to be cared for and treated in government hospitals established for the purpose. Many, unfitted by wounds or disease for their former work, had to be trained for new occupations. Through the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment and the Soldiers' Settlement Board the government did its best to cope with the situation. In addition, money had to be provided for pensions to disabled

soldiers and to the dependants of all those who had laid down their lives in the defence of their country, and also for the relief of those who were unable to procure immediate employment. Serious financial problems also pressed upon the government. To prevent the collapse of the Great Northern, the Grand Trunk Pacific, and, afterwards, the Grand Trunk Railway, it was compelled to assume control of these corporations at a tremendous cost to the country. It also established, partly as a war measure, the Canadian Merchant Marine, a great fleet of Canadian-built steamers.

Sir Robert Borden had long borne a heavy weight of responsibility as Premier. He had been, moreover, an active and influential member of the Imperial War Council and of the Peace Conference that followed the close of the Great War. No one had been more painstaking or more unsparing of self than he in the service of his country. At last his health broke under the strain, and, in 1920, he was compelled to retire from the Premiership. He recommended to the Governor-general Mr. Arthur Meighen, a member of his Cabinet, as his successor. Mr. Meighen had already played an important part in affairs of state, and, with the advantage of experience, had also the vigour and ambition of youth. One of his



ARTHUR MEIGHEN

first duties, after taking office, was to attend an Imperial Conference called to meet at London in the spring of 1921. At this Conference many matters concerning the Empire were under discussion, and in these discussions the Premier took a very prominent part.

In the latter part of 1921 Mr. Meighen made up his mind to appeal to the country. In the elections three parties were in the field. The government party, under



W. L. MACKENZIE KING

the leadership of Mr. Meighen, faced the Liberals, who were led by Mr. William Lyon Mackenzie King, a grandson of William Lyon Mackenzie. In addition to these a new party sought the approval of the electors—the Progressivists, under the leadership of Mr. T. A. Crerar of Manitoba. This party, composed largely of farmers, had come into prominence only during the two years or so before. The result of the elections, which were held in December, was the

defeat of the government, the Premier himself and several of his colleagues being rejected at the polls. As the Liberals were found to be in the majority, Mr. Mackenzie King, their leader, was called on by the Governor-General to form a government.

When the Duke of Devonshire had completed in 1921 his term of office as Governor-general, the British government named as his successor Lord Byng of Vimy. A brilliant soldier of the Great War, he was already well

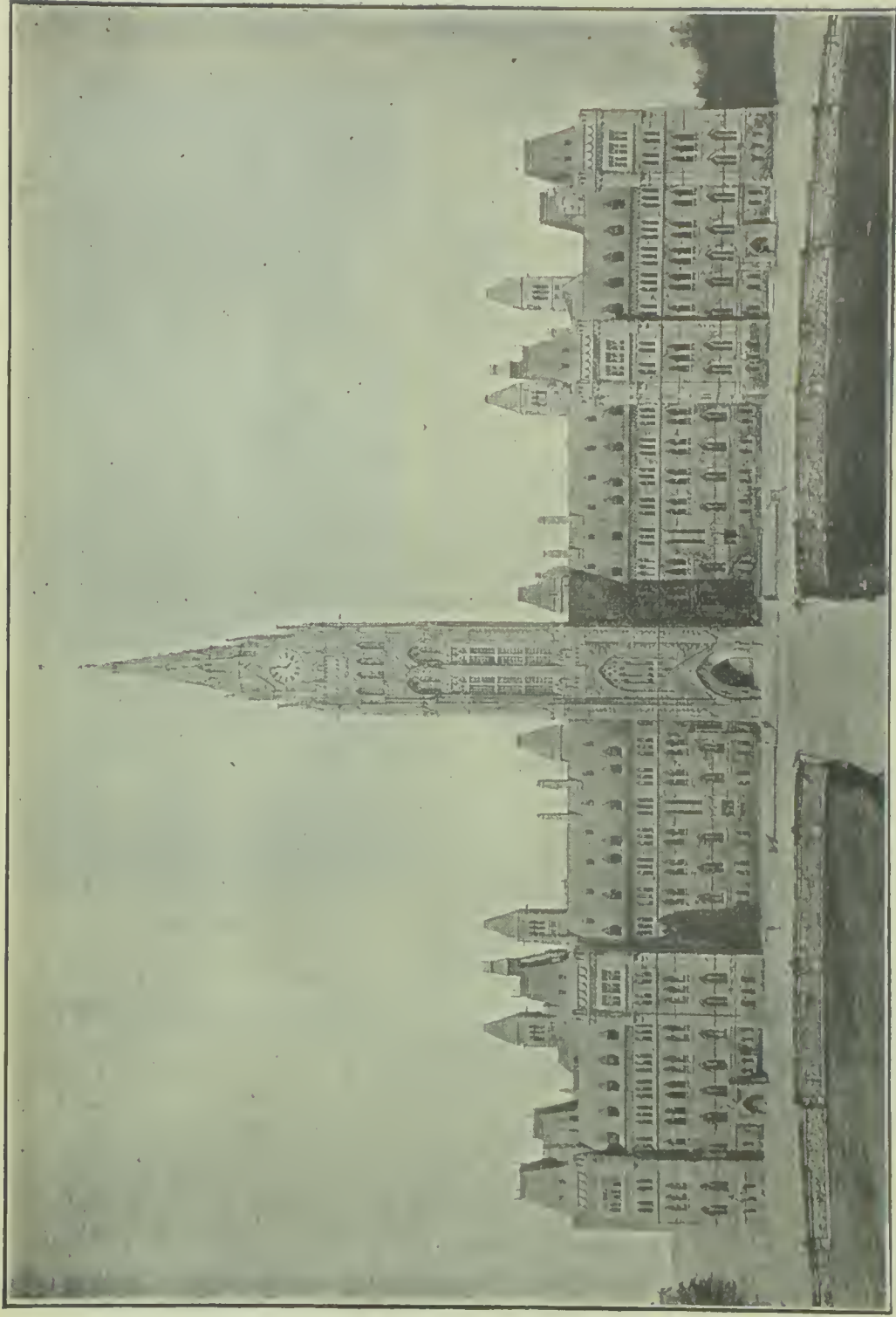
known in Canada as the successful leader of the Canadians in France and afterwards of a British army. On his arrival in August, 1921, he received the warmest of welcomes from the Canadian people.

The Passing of Two Great Canadians.—In recent years death has claimed two veteran statesmen who played a great part in the history of the Dominion. The political career of Sir Charles Tupper ended in 1901, but he retained in great measure his vigour of mind and body till his death in 1915 at the age of ninety-four. He was the last survivor, and one of the greatest, of that famous band of giants—the “Fathers of Confederation.”

In February, 1919, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the beloved Liberal leader, unexpectedly passed away. His polished oratory, his skill in leadership, his blameless life, and his high ideals of statesmanship have placed him in the first rank of great Canadians. As we have seen, his great object in life was the welding together of the people of every section, race, and creed in Canada in the spirit of common patriotism.



LORD BYNG OF VIMY



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

CHAPTER XXXI

GENERAL PROGRESS

1867-1921

Material Growth.—We have traced the remarkable advance of the Dominion in political unity and strength during the first half-century of her history. Equally great has been her material growth. By acquiring the vast regions of the North and West, Canada has extended her area from 370,000 square miles to 3,700,000 square miles. Her population has increased from a little over 3,000,000 to more than 9,000,000. Her public revenue and her commerce have grown more than twenty-fold.

Progress in Industries.—Canada's prosperity depends largely on the value of her farm products. This has increased ten-fold in the last fifty years. Such growth has been caused in part by the opening up to settlement of the fertile prairie region of the West. Yesterday a wilderness, to-day its farms produce hundreds of millions of bushels of wheat for the flour mills of Eastern Canada and of Europe. But increased production has been secured also by improved methods of farming. Agriculture is taught as a practical science in institution in all the provinces. Numerous model farms have been established by the Dominion and the Provincial governments. There experiments are carried on for the improvement of tillage, dairying, and fruit culture, and to obtain the best varieties of seed, and the best breeds of domestic animals. Valuable information is supplied to

farmers by means of printed reports, travelling schools, and lecturers.

Moreover, the farmer's life has been made much easier and pleasanter by the more general use of labour-saving machinery and electric power, the introduction of country telephone connections, and the providing of rural mail delivery. Instead of the rough, unpainted farm-house, with its untidy outbuildings and the unsightly pole fences, we now find the well-built and well-furnished home, large, well-ventilated barns, trim hedgerows, and fences of wire.

The most progressive peoples of the world are those who occupy themselves not only with the production of food, but also with the making of the thousand other things needed to supply the wants of man. Fifty years ago the people of Canada were dependent for most of such on the manufacturers of other countries, as England and the United States. Gradually, however, factories have been established in the cities, towns, and villages of our own land. In them hundreds of thousands of workmen are producing the cottons and woollens, the leather and rubber goods, the tools, the machines, the cars, and the engines, needed by our people, and for export. In the manufacture of wood-pulp and of its finished product, paper, Canada now ranks as one of the first countries in the world.

The development of electric energy from the almost unlimited waterpower found in almost all of the provinces has greatly helped in the progress of manufacturing.

Fishing and lumbering still remain leading industries of Canada. Mining, although employing thousands of men, is yet only in its infancy. The immense mineral resources of the country have so far been little more than touched.

Roads.—The wealth of a country depends not only on the amount of its produce, but also on the ease with which that produce may be marketed; that is, in the first place, on the condition of its roads. The better the road, the larger the load that may be carried, and the smaller the cost. This fact is of more importance now that the automobile and the motor transport are replacing the horse.

The quality of the roads in many parts of Canada leaves much to be desired. Yet great improvements have been made in recent years. The various provincial governments have made large grants for this purpose to the municipalities. The Dominion government now for some years has given financial aid to the provinces in the building of roads. More money, better methods, and expert supervision have wrought wonders. The old narrow dirt track, climbing up hill and down, mucky with clay in wet weather, thick with dust in dry, has been widely replaced by the broad, well-drained highway of easy grades and clean, smooth, firm surface.

Railways and Canada.—In a country of such great distances as Canada the railroad is of prime importance to commerce, and in railway construction marvellous strides have been taken. In 1869 the mileage was about 2000. It is now about 40,000. Much of this increase has been required by the rapid settlement of the wide areas of the West after the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway. This road became unequal to the task of handling so great a volume of trade as developed. In 1903 the Dominion government granted a charter to the Grand Trunk Pacific Company, intimately connected with the Grand Trunk Company of Eastern Canada, to build a railway from Winnipeg across the prairies, through the mountains to the Pacific.

The western terminus was fixed at Prince Rupert. At the same time the government undertook the construction of a connecting line eastward from Winnipeg direct to the St. Lawrence at Quebec, thence to Moncton in New Brunswick. Another line constructed about the same time was the Canadian Northern. It ran from Lake Superior to the Pacific Coast by way of Winnipeg and Edmonton. The same company owned various shorter lines in the eastern provinces.

In the period of business depression before and during the Great War, the expense of operating the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific became so great that the Dominion government was compelled to come to their aid with loans and guarantees. It finally took them over and now operates them, together with the Intercolonial, as the Canadian National system. Later it was compelled to take over and operate the Grand Trunk Railway. The government is also building a line from the Pas in Manitoba to Port Nelson on Hudson Bay. When completed, this will provide a much shorter route for the transport of wheat to Europe. Unfortunately, the route is closed for much of the year by ice blockade in Hudson Strait.

Canada is rich in waterways, and great attention has been paid since Confederation to their development. The older canals have been deepened and new canals constructed. Steamers now crowd her great inland waters during the summer months. From her ports on both the Atlantic and the Pacific great steamship lines connect with all the leading countries of the world.

Education.—By the British North America Act, education was placed under the control of the various provincial governments. The systems, thus established, differ considerably one from another. But everywhere

wonderful progress has been made in the last half-century. It has become a generally recognized fact that the rights of the child demand from the parent as good an education as is possible. It is the duty of the state to enforce this right and to provide the means, since the ignorance of its citizens is a serious danger to the interests of the state itself. Accordingly, laws have been passed in every province except Quebec compelling children to attend school a certain number of years.

Large sums have been spent in providing better school buildings and equipment. A more thorough training of teachers has been secured. Courses of school studies have been improved, so as to prepare the children in a more practical way for their life work. To this end many technical schools have been established. In them the pupil learns not merely to think with the mind, but also to do with the hands—to draw, to cook, and to sew, to work in wood and metal.

Emphasis has been laid on the school's part in training pupils for the duties of citizenship, in teaching them the principles of the government of our country, and in inspiring them to show their love of her by loyal service. Such work is of special importance in the provinces of the West, where there are many immigrants from foreign lands who do not speak in our tongue or understand the spirit of our laws and government.

Social Service.—There is no state church in Canada, but the various Protestant denominations—Anglicans, Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians—and the Roman Catholic Church have together done much to elevate and enrich the social and national life. This service has been particularly valuable in the West. It was largely through the early pioneer work of such missionaries as Taché, Lacombe, Machray, McDougall, Evans,

Black, and Robertson in that wide region that the spirit of law and order was established on which the foundations of society depend.

The national work of the churches is supplemented by that of other organizations, which have been established and have grown strong in this period. The Salvation Army strives to uplift the under-privileged classes. The Boy Scouts' Association trains the youth in observation, self-reliance, and in citizen service. The Young Men's Christian Association has for its aim the all-round development of the individual—in body, mind, and soul.

Canadian Literature and Art.—Two of the strongest factors in the development of our Canadian life have been the influence of Britain, the motherland, and the influence of the great kindred nation beside us, the United States. From the former we have received our political forms and ideas, and the principles of our law. In our social and industrial life we more closely resemble the latter. For educational ideas we are largely indebted to both countries. The books and magazines most widely read are the work of English or of American authors. It is but natural, therefore, that our own literature in English should closely follow the models of these older lands. Yet it has had something of a distinct Canadian touch. This has become much more marked with the growth of our own national spirit in recent years. French Canada has a literature all its own.

The artistic spirit matures slowly in a new country like Canada, where the development of its natural resources absorbs the energy of its people. Yet the public taste for the beautiful is being educated, and the outlook for the future of art is promising. The number of Canadian artists and of purchasers of works of art has steadily grown. Under the patronage of the Marquis

of Lorne, the Royal Canadian Academy of Art was founded in 1882. Art associations and schools have been formed in most of the larger cities. There are well-filled public galleries in Ottawa, Montreal, and Toronto. In the numerous private collections may be found some of the finest works of foreign artists.



KEY TO THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION

1. Hewitt Barnard (1826-1893), Secretary; 2. William Alexander Henry (1816-1888), N.S.; 3. Edward Palmer (1809-1889), P.E.I.; 4. William Henry Steeves (1814-1873), N.B.; 5. Charles Fisher (1808-1880), N.B.; 6. Edward Whalen (1824-1867), P.E.I.; 7. John Hamilton, Gray (1811-1887), P.E.I.; 8. George Coles (1810-1875), P.E.I.; 9. Ambrose Shea (1818-1905), Newfoundland; 10. Frederic Bowker Terrington Carter (1819-1900), Newfoundland; 11. Samuel Leonard Tilley (1818-1896), N.B.; 12. Jean Charles Chapais (1812-1885), Canada; 13. Edward Barron Chandler (1800-1880), N.B.; 14. Alexander Campbell (1821-1892), Canada; 15. Adams George Archibald (1814-1892), N.S.; 16. Hector Langevin (1826-1906), Canada; 17. John Alexander Macdonald (1815-1891), Canada; 18. George Etienne Cartier (1814-1873), Canada; 19. Etienne Paschal Taché (1795-1865), Canada; 20. George Brown (1818-1880), Canada; 21. Thomas Heath Haviland (1822-1895), P.E.I.; 22. Alexander Tilloch Galt (1817-1893), Canada; 23. Peter Mitchell (1824-1899), N.B.; 24. Oliver Mowat (1820-1903), Canada; 25. James Cockburn (1819-1883), Canada; 26. Robert Barry Dickey (1811-1903), N.S. 27. Charles Tupper (1821-1915), N.S.; 28. John Hamilton Gray (1814-1889), N.B.; 29. William Henry Pope (1825-1879), P.E.I.; 30. William McDougall (1822-1905), Canada; 31. Thomas D'Arcy McGee (1825-1868), Canada; 32. Andrew Archibald Macdonald (1829-1905), P.E.I.; 33. Jonathan McCully (1809-1877), N.S.; 34. John M. Johnson (1818-1868), N.B.

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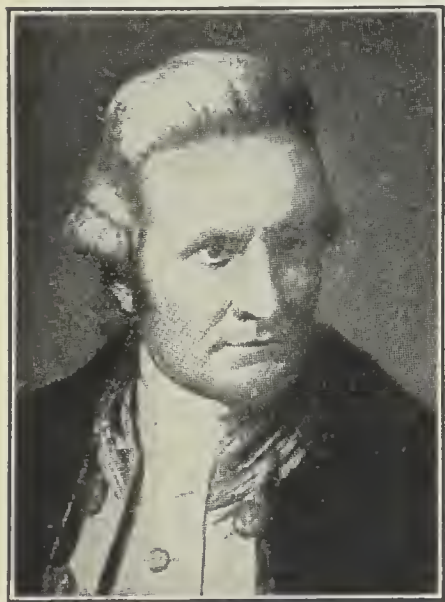
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BRITISH COLUMBIA

CHAPTER I

EARLY EXPLORATION

Captain James Cook.—The history of British Columbia really begins with the arrival of the great explorer, Captain James Cook, at Nootka, in 1778. Cook was not unknown at this time for his work in North America. In 1759, he had accompanied the fleet under Sir Charles



JAMES COOK

Saunders to the **siege** of Quebec and had been employed in surveying the channel of the St. Lawrence River. Later, he had been in charge of the marine survey of the coasts of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. In 1776, he was chosen by the British government to command an expedition in search of the North-West Passage, the discovery of which was then interesting the people of England. Two stout ships were provided for the expedition,

the *Resolution* of four hundred and sixty-two tons with a crew of one hundred and twelve men, and the *Discovery* of three hundred tons with a crew numbering sixty-two.

Two years were spent in exploration in the South Seas, so that it was not until the early spring of 1778 that Cook sailed up the north-west coast of America. On his way northward he discovered and named Cape Flattery, but he missed entirely the Strait of Juan de Fuca, said to have been entered some years before by an old Greek



INDIAN SETTLEMENT AT NOOTKA

pilot of that name in the service of Spain. On March 29th, 1778, Nootka Sound was discovered.

At Nootka the explorer was welcomed by three canoes of natives, who put out from shore to meet him. More canoes soon followed, so that at times the ships were surrounded by two thousand or more natives in their gay costumes. A brisk trade sprang up. The natives offered "skins of bears, wolves, foxes, deer, raccoons, polecats, martens, and in particular, sea-otters," and were given in exchange "knives, chisels, pieces of wire and tin, nails looking-glasses, buttons or any kind of metal." Thous-

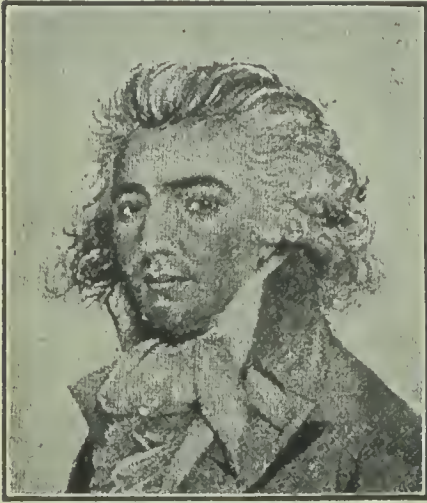
ands of valuable skins were obtained for a mere trifle. The ships were soon loaded with all the furs they could conveniently carry.

Cook spent four weeks at Nootka, replacing the masts and refitting his ships for a further voyage. He himself explored the neighbourhood and even crossed to the east coast of the Island. The Indians continued to be friendly, but, one night towards the end of the fourth week, Cook found the woods around his encampment filled with warriors in full war paint. He knew them to be dangerous and prevented from attacking him only by the heavy guns on board his vessels. As the ships were ready for sea, he judged it best to delay no longer. On April 26th, he set sail from Nootka and proceeded on his voyage towards the north. The summer was spent in the vicinity of Bering Sea, and in September the expedition sailed for the Sandwich Islands in order to pass the winter there. A little later, Cook was murdered by the natives on one of these islands.

The importance of Cook's voyage lies in the fact that he had actually landed at Nootka and that he had spent some time in surveying the coast-line and in exploring the Island. On this, Britain in part based her claim to the north-west coast of North America.

Captain John Meares—Before returning to England the Cook expedition visited China, where the furs purchased from the Indians at Nootka, although in very bad condition, were sold for ten thousand dollars. When the account of the expedition was published in 1784, the mercantile world of Europe, and especially of England, was stirred to its depths by the possibilities of the fur-trade on the far-distant Pacific coast of North America. In 1785, Captain James Hanna made a voyage to Nootka and returned with a rich cargo of

furs. In the next year, Captains Lowrie and Guise visited Nootka, and, after spending a month there, set sail for the north. On their way home, in a dense fog, they passed the ships of LaPérouse, the first Frenchman to visit the North-West Coast. In 1787, Captain Barkley, on his way home from Nootka Sound, caught a glimpse of the long-lost Strait of Juan de Fuca. He also con-



JOHN MEARES

vinced himself that the region so far visited and partly explored by previous captains was not part of the mainland, but a large island lying along the coast.

In May, 1787, Captain John Meares in the *Felice* and Captain William Douglas in the *Iphigenia*, both vessels sailing under the Portuguese flag in order to avoid the heavy tax on all vessels trading with China, except

those of Portugal, entered the harbour of Nootka. The captains were royally welcomed by the natives, who sold to them land on which to build a trading-post for "eight or ten sheets of copper and several other trifling articles." A two-story house was erected, protected by a stockade and by a single cannon. Chinese carpenters, whom Meares had brought with him, were at once set to work to build a small vessel for the purpose of trading along the coast. Douglas sailed for the north to trade for furs, while Meares proceeded southward in search of the mouth of a large river, which, he had heard, entered the ocean to the south of the Strait of Juan de Fuca. He was not successful in finding the river and in July was back at Nootka. There he found Captain Douglas, who

had just returned with a valuable cargo of furs, obtained from the Indians at a very small cost.

At about the same time an American explorer, Captain Robert Gray in the *Lady Washington*, sailed into Nootka Sound, just in time to celebrate with Meares and Douglas the launching of their ship the *North-West America*, the first vessel built in what is now British Columbia. Shortly after, Meares in the *Felice* sailed for



THE LAUNCHING OF THE *NORTH-WEST AMERICA*

From Meares' "Voyages"

China. While there, he arranged that two other ships should be sent to Nootka to engage in the fur-trade.

In the meantime, the conflicting claims of the Russians and the Spaniards to the whole western coast of North America brought about a dispute between Great Britain and Spain, which almost plunged the two countries into war. The Russians had been for some years

engaged in the fur-trade along the Alaskan coast, and they now announced their intention of extending their operations still farther to the south. The rumour of this intention reached Spain and caused great alarm to the Spanish government. Spain, on account of her early discoveries along the west coast to the south, had always laid claim to the entire coast line of the continent on the west. In order to find out the plans of the Russians, a Spanish expedition from Mexico was dispatched to Nootka in May, 1789, under the command of Juan Martinez.

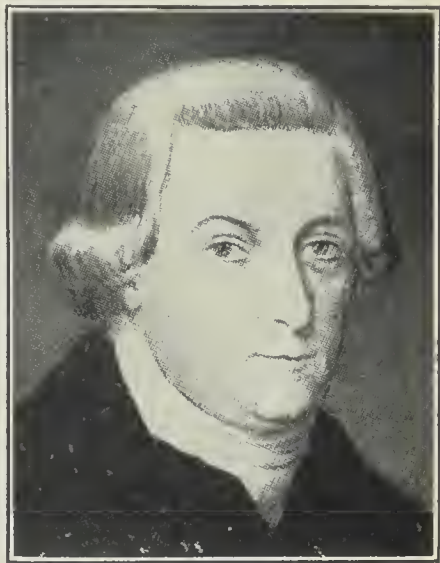
When Martinez reached Nootka, he was astonished to find a trading-post erected there and two vessels in the harbour, the *Iphigenia* under Captain Douglas, flying the Portuguese flag, and the *Columbia*, an American ship. The latter was not molested, but the former was seized and Douglas arrested and imprisoned for poaching on Spanish territory. Douglas, however, was shortly afterwards released and allowed to proceed on his way with his vessel. Meares' fort was dismantled, and the *North-West America* was seized as soon as it arrived in the harbour. The same fate awaited the two ships, both British, sent from China by Meares, the crews of both being sent as prisoners to Mexico. In June, 1789, Martinez took formal possession of Nootka in the name of the king of Spain.

As Meares was a subject of King George III and his vessels were British owned, he hurried to England and applied to the British government for redress. In reply to the demand of the British government for satisfaction for this high-handed conduct, Spain refused to make reparation, claiming the territory for her own and declaring Meares and his brother captains guilty of poaching on land belonging to a friendly nation. Both nations

made preparations for war. Ultimately, after long-continued negotiations, the dispute was settled by the Nootka Convention, signed on October 28th, 1790. Spain agreed to restore possession of the land seized, to pay damages to Captain Meares for the loss sustained by him in the seizure of his vessels and the destruction of his trading-post, and also agreed that the navigation, commerce, and fisheries of the Pacific coast of America should, under certain restrictions, be open to the British. Thus ended peacefully the famous "Nootka Affair."

Captain George Vancouver.—

For the purpose of obtaining re-possession of the lands seized by the Spaniards, an expedition was sent from England on April 1st, 1791. The two ships, the *Discovery* and the *Chatham*, were under the command of Captain George Vancouver, who, as a midshipman, had been with Cook in the Pacific. His instructions were, in addition to seeing that the terms of the Nootka Conven-



GEORGE VANCOUVER

tion were carried out, to explore the coast and in particular to make a careful search for a North-West Passage across the continent.

A year later, Vancouver sailed up the coast, missing the mouth of the Columbia River, but entering and exploring Puget Sound. Proceeding up the Strait of Georgia, he fell in with two Spanish captains, who told him that Don Bodega y Quadra, the Spanish representative, was awaiting him at Nootka. Continuing still farther northward, he entered Queen Charlotte Sound, thus prov-

ing the existence of the large island which now bears his name. A few days later, he was formally welcomed to Nootka by Don Quadra. In compliment to the Spanish commander Vancouver named the island Quadra and Vancouver.

The two representatives, however, could not come to an agreement. Don Quadra held that his instructions were to restore only the land on which Captain Meares' fort had stood, while Cook demanded not only the site of the fort but also the whole adjacent territory. As neither representative would give in, the Spanish ships sailed for Mexico, while Vancouver continued his explorations.

While in Puget Sound, Vancouver had met Captain Gray, the American explorer. Gray told him that a short time before he had discovered the Columbia River. Vancouver rather doubted the story, but soon found that the American had been telling the truth. He spent some time in exploring the river, which he had no difficulty in finding from Gray's directions, and claimed the adjacent territory for Great Britain. After a years' further exploration in the Pacific, he sailed for home.

The Nootka dispute was finally settled by the Convention for the Mutual Abandonment of Nootka signed at Madrid in 1794. On March 23rd, 1795, the formal abandonment took place in the presence of representatives of both nations. The Spaniards made amends for the insult to the British flag, and then both nations withdrew their people from the territory. No permanent settlement was to be made by either party, but the port of Nootka was at all times to be free to the subjects of both nations.

The Early Fur-traders and the Indians.—The Pacific Province is the home of many tribes of Indians who

differ widely from each other in appearance, in customs, and in language. Whence they came is unknown, though the general opinion is that their ancestors crossed the Pacific Ocean from the opposite shores of Asia. Many of them have great skill in carving and in weaving. The coast Indians are clever boatbuilders and expert fishermen, while all are adepts in hunting the fur-bearing animals of sea and land. None of them have a written language, although the carvings on the monuments they call "totem poles" show that they can in a rude and imperfect way communicate to succeeding generations some account of the deeds of their ancestors. They have many curious legends, and they believe in a future life. All the coast Indians were great warriors. Many were cannibals and practised degrading and cruel rites in years gone by. Indeed, when Cook visited Nootka, he saw unmistakable signs of cannibalism among the Indians who gave him such a kindly welcome.



INDIAN "TOTEM-POLES"

For many years after the abandonment of Nootka by the British and the Spaniards, the fur-trade was in the hands of the Russians and the Americans. As these traders had but one object in view, the gathering of full cargoes of furs for their ships, they did not hesitate to make use of the most despicable means to attain their ends. The Indians were plied with liquor, which in-

flamed their passions and sank them still further into degradation. Sometimes the traders raided the Indian encampments and stole the furs from their owners, shooting down those who resisted. It is not to be wondered at that the Indians should resent such treatment and that terrible conflicts were of frequent occurrence.



CALLICUM AND MAQUINNA

Chiefs of the Nootka Indians

In 1803, the *Boston* was captured by Maquinna, chief of the Nootka Indians, and the crew, with the exception of two men, were brutally murdered. The two who escaped the massacre were held prisoners for some years. A little later, another American trading vessel was attacked, and the captain, the mate, and six of the crew were killed. These are but two of many similar incidents. The hostility of the natives to the early fur-traders made it very diffi-

cult for the traders from Canada, who were now about to enter the country, to establish their posts and carry on the legitimate business of the fur-trade.

CHAPTER II

THE FUR COMPANIES

Alexander Mackenzie.—In 1670, King Charles II of England granted to "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay," commonly called the Hudson's Bay Company, a charter entitling them to the trade of all the country surrounding Hudson Bay. For many years the company carried on a very profitable trade with the Indians at its forts on Hudson Bay, without making any strong effort to advance its posts into the interior. Following the exploration of the central West by Pierre de la Vérendrye, French traders quickly established trading-posts over the prairie region. In 1763, they were compelled to withdraw, owing to the surrender to Great Britain of the French dominions in the northern part of the continent, thus leaving the field open to the English company. The Hudson's Bay Company, however, was not long left in undisturbed possession.

Soon after the conquest of Canada by Great Britain, a number of hard-headed Scottish merchants had made their homes in Montreal. They at once saw the possibilities of the fur-trade in the West and resolved to claim a share from the Hudson's Bay Company. In order that they might present a united front against the older corporation, they united in 1787 to form the North-West Company. A bitter rivalry sprang up between the two companies, a rivalry which existed for thirty-five years. Each company now vied with the other in es-

tablishing posts at strategic points in the hitherto almost unknown interior, and in exploring the rivers and lakes in which the country abounded.

At this time the hope of finding a North-West Passage across the continent had not been abandoned. Alexander Mackenzie, one of the partners in the North-West Company and governor of the district of Athabaska, had, in 1789, followed the Mackenzie River to its mouth, and

thus proved beyond question that no such passage could possibly exist. He was, however, quite certain that if he followed the Peace River to its source, he would eventually find his way overland to the Pacific Ocean.



ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

Setting out from Fort Chipewyan, Mackenzie ascended the Peace River and spent the winter at Fort Fork, a trading-post which he built on its bank. In May, 1793, he set his face

westward. He traced the Peace River to the source of its southerly branch, now known as the Parsnip, crossed a divide of 814 paces, and made his way to a river flowing westward. This he called the "Great River;" the Indian name he gives as Tacoutche Tesse. It was for many years thought to be the Columbia or Great River of the West; we now know it as the Fraser. After reaching a point near Alexandria, he retraced his course to the Blackwater River, which he ascended, crossed the portage to the Bella Coola River, and reached Bentinck Arm in July, 1793. Two days later he wrote on the rocks at Cascade Inlet:—"Alexander Mackenzie from Canada,

by land, the twenty-second day of July, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three." If he had reached this spot a month earlier, he would have met Vancouver, who was then surveying there. Mackenzie's voyage gave to the world the first knowledge of the interior of British Columbia. In recognition of his services as an explorer, the adventurous traveller received from King George III the well-deserved honour of knighthood.

Simon Fraser—The North-West Company did not take any keen interest in Mackenzie's discoveries, and for twelve years nothing was done by them to obtain the trade of the country beyond the Rockies. In 1804, however, the partners became alarmed at the report of an expedition under Captains Lewis and Clark, which had been sent overland by the United States government with the object of annexing the territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific



SIMON FRASER

coast. They knew from Mackenzie's journals that the country was extraordinarily rich in fur-bearing animals and awaited only the coming of the traders. In the next year, they made up their mind to invade the Pacific territory. One of the partners in the company, Simon Fraser, was chosen for the work.

Fraser followed Alexander Mackenzie's course up the Peace River until he reached the Pack River, a small stream flowing out of McLeod Lake, and there, late in 1805, he built Fort McLeod, the first permanent abode of

civilized man in British Columbia. In the following year, he continued in Mackenzie's track up the Parsnip and across to the Fraser, which he followed to the confluence of the Nechaco. This stream he ascended and built in 1806 on Stuart Lake another post—the celebrated Fort St. James. Later, in 1806, he built Fort Fraser on Fraser Lake, a short distance to the westward; and in 1807 he built Fort George at the mouth of the Nechaco River.



FRASER DESCENDING THE FRASER RIVER

The North-West Company then sent instructions to Fraser to explore the Great River—the Fraser as we now call it—to its mouth. He set out on this adventurous undertaking in May, 1808. As he made his way down the river, the Indians repeatedly warned him of the dangerous

canyons and awe-inspiring rapids which lay ahead. Nevertheless the explorer persevered until, finding the river unnavigable, he abandoned his canoes, and the party made their way by Indian trails along the banks of the river to Yale. Obtaining canoes there, the remainder of the journey was made by water to the mouth of the North Arm of the Fraser. Being attacked by the natives at Musqueam, Fraser hurriedly commenced his return journey, and the whole company, after many trials and difficulties, reached Fort George in safety early in August.

David Thompson.—In 1807, David Thompson, another partner in the North-West Company, crossed the Rocky

Mountains by way of the Howse Pass and the Blaeberry Creek, and discovered the main stream of the Columbia. On that river, not far from its source, he built, late in the same year, Fort Kootenay, the first trading post on the Columbia or any of its tributaries. Within the next four years he founded Forts Kullyspell, Salish, and Spokane on tributaries of the Columbia, but these were all within the present boundaries of the United States. His explorations in the valley of the Columbia entitle Thompson to a place among the great explorers of this continent.

The Pacific Fur Company.—In 1810, John Jacob Astor, a rich New York merchant, who had been for many years connected with the fur-trade of the United States, organized the Pacific Fur Company. His plan included a central depot, Astoria, on the Columbia, and annual vessels from New York to bring to the post supplies of trading goods. The furs were to be sold in China, where profitable cargoes of Oriental products could be obtained for the New York market. Astor succeeded in inducing a number of the employees of the North-West Company to enter his service. One party of Astorians, as they were called, was sent overland from the United States, while another in the *Tonquin* took the route to the Columbia River by way of Cape Horn. On the arrival of the vessel at the mouth of the Columbia in March, 1811, Astoria was established.

While the fort was being built, the *Tonquin* was sent on a trading expedition along the coast of Vancouver Island. At Clayaquot Sound, the vessel was treacherously attacked by the Indians, and eighteen men out of a crew of twenty-three were murdered. The five men who escaped barricaded themselves in the cabin and finally drove the Indians from the ship. The next day four of

them attempted to escape, but all were killed. Only one man, and he wounded, remained in the ship. When about a hundred of the savages had crowded on the deck, intent on plunder, he blew up the powder magazine, killing all the Indians on board and wounding at least another hundred who were in canoes alongside. News of the massacre was brought to Astoria by the Indian interpreter on the *Tonquin*, who had been imprisoned but had managed to escape. This was only the first of a long series of disasters which overtook the Pacific Fur Company.

Astor had offered an interest in his venture to the North-West Company, but the partners had refused to consider his proposal. David Thompson was sent to forestall him in the possession of the mouth of the Columbia, but, owing to difficulties on the journey, he had failed in the attempt. However, the Nor'-Westers carried on a trade war so successfully against the new company that on October 16th, 1813, they succeeded in purchasing all its interests for a very small amount. The name of Astoria was changed to Fort George. While the contest lasted, each of the companies built a trading post wherever a rival one existed. For instance, at Kamloops, the first trading post was located by the Astorians in 1812; almost immediately afterwards the Nor'-Westers built an opposition establishment alongside.

After the purchase of the Pacific Fur Company's interests in 1813, the North-West Company had complete control of the fur-trade, except in so far as an occasional vessel might trade along the coast. The Hudson's Bay Company, with but one exception and that a merely temporary one, did not cross the Rocky Mountains until after 1821.

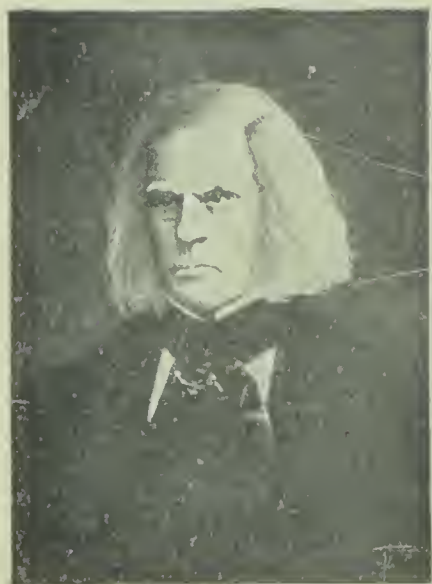
The Hudson's Bay Company.—The contest in the

territory east of the Rockies between the Hudson's Bay Company and the North-West Company became increasingly bitter, until, in 1817, it culminated in the tragedy at Seven Oaks. This unfortunate encounter brought the condition of affairs in the fur-trade to the attention of the British government. After lengthy negotiations, the two companies were united in 1821, by an Act of the Imperial Parliament, under the name of the Hudson's Bay Company. To these united interests the British government granted a license of exclusive trade with the Indians in the unorganized territories of North America, including the country west of the Rockies. This license was, in 1838, renewed in the name of the Hudson's Bay Company for a further period of twenty-one years. The enforcement of civil and criminal law was placed in the charge of the Canadian courts.

John McLoughlin.—The total territory under the control of the Hudson's Bay Company west of the Rockies was now about four hundred thousand square miles, with an Indian population of more than one hundred thousand. In this Western Department, as it was called, were included not only the present province of British Columbia, but also the present states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, as well as parts of Montana and Wyoming. The north-eastern part was known as New Caledonia and the south-western part as the Oregon country. Over New Caledonia George Simpson, governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, reigned supreme. In the Oregon country authority was divided with the Americans. In charge of the Western Department, under the governor, was placed John McLoughlin.

McLoughlin was a Canadian, who had spent his life in the service of the North-West Company. At the time of the amalgamation of the two companies he was in

charge of the post at Fort William. A strong man was needed in the Western Department, and McLoughlin was chosen. With him, at his personal request, went young James Douglas, a clerk in the employ of the junior company, who was so disgusted at the amalgamation



JOHN MCLOUGHLIN

that he had sent in his resignation. McLoughlin persuaded him to change his mind and to accompany him to his new field on the Pacific coast.

A recent writer has said of McLoughlin: "The employees of the company and the Indians at once feared and loved him. During the whole period of his rule there were no Indian wars, and the boats of the company, which, before his coming, had passed in fear and tremb-

ling through the Indian country, now threaded the maze of lake and river without fear of attack. And yet he had at his back no soldiers, no armed guard; his personality was sufficient to keep peace in his domain."

McLoughlin, shortly after his arrival on the coast, determined to move his headquarters from Fort George to a new fort on the north bank of the Columbia River. There Fort Vancouver was erected in 1830. Fort after fort was established within the bounds of the present province of British Columbia. The company gradually entered into other lines of activity outside the fur-trade. In 1827, Fort Langley, at the mouth of the Fraser River, was built in pursuance of a plan to carry on the work of farming and fishing. The trading goods were brought out and the furs taken back to England by annual sail-

ing vessels. The connection between the coast forts was maintained by small sailing vessels like the *Cadboro*, and later by the historic steamer *Beaver*, which arrived in 1836. Between the inland forts the means of communication were boats and pack-horses.

The Fur-Trade*—From time to time, little bands of men, with perhaps, the wives of one or two of them, came down the rivers in boats. Besides their freight of human beings



THE BEAVER

with the necessary food and clothing, these boats carried one or two small cannon, rifles and ammunition, tools for building, blankets, knives, cloth, beads, and other merchandise for the Indian trade. Arrived at a spot suitable for the company's post—perhaps a bluff overlooking the junction of two rivers, some sheltered cove near its mouth, or a fertile plain beside a fine harbour—the men unloaded their boats and proceeded to cut down trees and erect a strong building to serve the purpose of a dwelling, storehouse, and fort. Around it they raised a high stockade, within which the cannon were mounted. The rude furniture necessary for immediate use was made, and the piles of goods were neatly arranged. The Indians who came to see what was going on were carefully watched, but kindly treated. When all was finished, the workmen and boatmen rowed away, leaving in their wilderness home a factor or trader with a clerk and two or three workmen.

*From *A History of Canada* by Maria Lawson.

In some such way the fur-trade was established throughout the length and breadth of the province, and in a great part of the territory now occupied by the states of Washington and Oregon. The neighbourhood was cautiously but thoroughly examined, and the results of the observations were carefully recorded in the journals of the fort. The company's agents took great pains to establish friendly relations with the Indians and to learn



GOVERNOR SIMPSON ON A TOUR OF
INSPECTION

their language, while, at the same time, the savages were impressed with the power and wisdom of the great company and its officials. The goods were carefully marked, and the factor and his clerk prepared the books in which were kept the accounts of the fort. During the long winter nights, much time was spent in reading over and over the

few books to be found in the fort. Thus the young clerk accumulated a store of knowledge which many a modern lad might envy.

When the spring brought loads of furs to the fort, they were bought and paid for according to a fixed tariff, of which the unit of value was a beaver skin. The value of

the goods sold was small compared with that of the furs bought, but the difficulties of transportation through thousands of miles of wilderness were very great, and returns were long in coming. At first the Indians who came to the forts to trade were plentifully supplied with rum, but it was early seen that strong drink changed the savages into madmen at the time, and in the end unfitted them for the occupation of trapping and hunting. Hence, from motives of self-interest as well as humanity, the company's officers were forbidden to sell liquor to the Indians.

In some of the forts, as in Vancouver, Kamloops, or Victoria, there were many buildings and a large company of men, but sometimes a single man remained in charge of a small post. It is not surprising that these exiles sought society among the Indians and sometimes took wives from among the daughters of the forest.

When their hunting-grounds had become a colony and cities had grown up on the sites of their forts, the wonder is rather that they so preserved the manners of their early home and so increased their knowledge, that, after spending half a lifetime in the wilderness, many of them were fitted to take a leading part in public affairs.

The Oregon Treaty.—During all this time the question of the ownership of the country remained unsettled. It



TRADING WITH THE INDIANS

continued, as it had been since the time of the Nootka Convention, open to settlement by all the nations, but was the property of none. Russia, Spain, the United States, and Great Britain all had interests in and certain claims to portions of the coast. By a treaty made in 1825, the portion which should belong to Russia was marked off. The southern boundary of Russian America, or Alaska as we now call it, was thereby fixed at $54^{\circ} 40'$ North latitude.

In 1819, the northern limit of the Spanish possessions was placed at 42° North latitude, and the rights of Spain beyond that point were transferred to the United States. Thus, but two claimants to the Oregon Territory, as the country between 42° and $54^{\circ} 40'$ was called, remained—Great Britain and the United States.

In 1818, when the 49th parallel was made the boundary between the British and the American possessions east of the Rockies, it was agreed that the territory west of those mountains should be open to the subjects of both nations for ten years. In 1827, the arrangement of joint occupancy was continued, to be terminated by one year's notice. Several attempts were made to arrange a division of the territory. Great Britain offered to accept as a boundary the 49th parallel to the Columbia River, and the centre line of that river from there to the ocean. The United States offered to accept as a boundary line the 49th parallel to the ocean. Various alterations in the details of these offers were made from time to time, without a settlement of the dispute being reached. In 1844, the Democratic party in the United States claimed the whole territory and raised the cry of "Fifty-four forty, or fight." By the Oregon Treaty, 1846, the long-standing difficulty was adjusted, and the boundary line was drawn along the 49th parallel to the middle of the

Gulf of Georgia, and thence through the middle of the channel that separates the continent from Vancouver Island and the middle of the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the ocean.

Two years before the Oregon Treaty was signed, McLoughlin had decided to cast in his lot with the Americans. In 1844, he retired from the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. He died at Oregon City in 1857.



FORT VICTORIA

Fort Victoria.—As the Oregon dispute waxed warmer, the governors of the Hudson's Bay Company saw that the territory surrounding Fort Vancouver would, in all probability, become the property of the United States. It was determined, therefore, to select a new location for the principal fort of the Western Department. James Douglas, who had by this time become chief trader at Fort Vancouver and principal assistant to McLoughlin, was chosen to examine all available sites and to report to his chief. The company had come to the conclusion

that they would be safe in establishing their new fort at any point on Vancouver Island or on the mainland north of the 49th parallel.

In 1842, Douglas made his inspection and reported in favour of a site on the southern end of Vancouver Island. In the next year, the fort was built under the supervision of Douglas himself. It was an enclosure about a hundred yards square, surrounded by a palisade of cedar posts twenty feet high, and having at opposite corners bastions mounting six cannons each. It was known successively as Fort Camosun, Fort Albert, and Fort Victoria. This was the beginning of the beautiful city of Victoria, the capital of British Columbia.

CHAPTER III

CROWN COLONIES

Vancouver Island.—Shortly after the settlement of the boundary between Canada and the United States by the Oregon Treaty, the Hudson's Bay Company made application to the Imperial government, through its governor, for a grant not only of the mainland but also of Vancouver Island. The Colonial Secretary approved the request of the company as regards the Island, but refused to extend its power to the mainland. The company undertook to settle a colony of British subjects on Vancouver Island within five years, to dispose of the land at a reasonable price, and after deducting ten per cent. for management, to apply the remainder of the money to improving the Island. If no settlement were made within the time limit, the grant was to be forfeited, and, at the expiration of the company's license to trade with the Indians, which would terminate in 1859, the Island could be taken back, on payment of whatever money the company should have expended.

Richard Blanshard was sent out from England as the first governor of the colony. He arrived at Victoria in March, 1850. There were no colonists to be governed. The servants of the company were the only persons on the Island. Later a few real colonists arrived. The governor's position was so unhappy that in November, 1850, he resigned, though he did not actually leave the colony until September, 1851. Before leaving, he appointed a Council of three persons—James Douglas,

John Tod, and James Cooper—to manage its affairs until his successor should be chosen. In November, 1851, James Douglas, who had succeeded McLoughlin as head of the Western Department of the Hudson's Bay Company, took office as governor of Vancouver Island. Roderick Finlayson took the place of Douglas on the Council.



SIR JAMES DOUGLAS

The population of the colony increased, but very slowly. The discovery of coal at Fort Rupert, and later at Nanaimo, caused the company to bring out a few coal miners. In 1853, there were only four hundred and fifty white inhabitants, of

whom three hundred were at Victoria and one hundred and twenty-five at Nanaimo. These settlers were very much dissatisfied with conditions in the colony. All the wild land convenient to the various forts of the Hudson's Bay Company had been bought up at a very cheap rate by the officers of the company, thus forcing settlement away from the posts. The settlers could purchase their supplies only at the company's stores, and were compelled to pay what they considered to be excessive prices. In 1853, they petitioned the Imperial government against the renewal of the company's charter, which, if not renewed in the next year, would cease. The Imperial government, however, decided to renew the charter for a further term of five years. At this time, Mr. David Cameron was appointed Chief-Justice of the Island.

Up to 1856, Douglas continued to govern the colony with the assistance of his Council, but in that year he

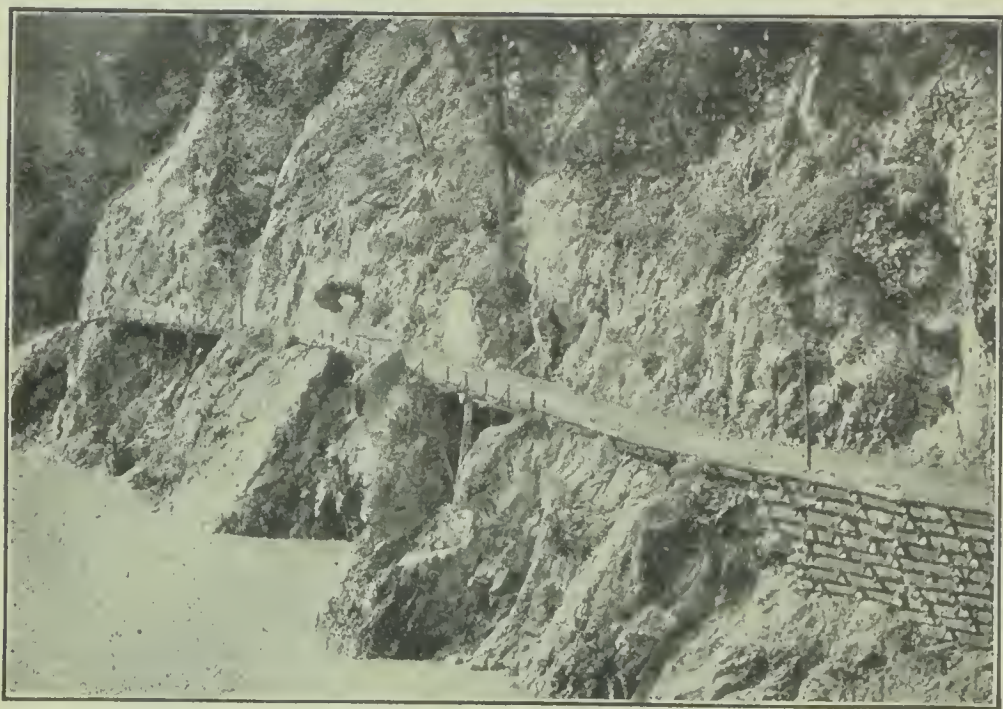
was instructed by the Colonial Secretary, very much to his surprise, to summon a Legislative Assembly. For the purposes of the election the colony was divided into four electoral districts: Victoria, with three members; Esquimalt and Metchosin, with two members; and Nanaimo and Sooke, with one member each. The new Assembly met for the first time on August 12th, 1856. The membership of the Assembly was, in 1860, increased to ten and, three years later, to fifteen. There was sometimes considerable friction between the Assembly on the one hand and the governor and his Council on the other, but, on the whole, the government was quite satisfactory. In 1858, the Imperial government, after an exhaustive inquiry conducted by a select committee of the House of Commons, decided not to renew the lease of the Hudson's Bay Company, which would expire in 1859.

British Columbia.—In the spring of 1858, the news of the discovery of gold on the mainland caused a great inrush of miners. Victoria, as the nearest seaport, sprang suddenly into importance, for there the incoming vessels landed the greater number of these adventurers. About thirty thousand people came in this "rush." Their advent marked the end of the Hudson's Bay Company's authority on the mainland, which was created a separate colony as British Columbia on November 19th, 1858. The license of exclusive trade with the Indians was cancelled in the same month, and James Douglas was appointed governor of British Columbia as well as of Vancouver Island. On taking office he ceased all connection with the Hudson's Bay Company.

The early miners were in many instances disappointed, owing to the bars being submerged by the freshet. But some persevered. They ascended the Fraser and the Thompson Rivers, and reaped a rich reward. The diggings

on the bars of these rivers were quite shallow, gold being sometimes found within a few inches of the surface. The canyons above Yale constituted a serious obstacle. To avoid them, a route by way of Harrison, Lillooet, Anderson, and Seton Lakes was opened.

The gold found near Lillooet was quite coarse, while that found below Yale was in scales and minute particles. The miners, therefore, concluded that farther up the river



THE CARIBOO ROAD ALONG THE FRASER RIVER

richer mining-ground would be found. Prospectors pressed into the interior and were rewarded by the discovery of gold in 1859 on the Quesnelle and Horsefly Rivers. In the next year, Harvey, Keithley, Cunningham, and the other creeks which flow into Cariboo Lake were ascertained to be gold-bearing. Late in 1860, Antler Creek was discovered. As a result many miners made their way into the Cariboo district in 1861, and Williams Creek became known as the richest diggings in the world. The

abundant gold of the Cariboo creeks—especially Williams, Lowhee, Antler, and Lightning—drew a great influx of miners from all parts of the world during 1862 and subsequent years.

The mines of Cariboo lay in the interior, nearly five hundred miles distant from Yale, the head of navigation. To give easy access to them, Douglas, in 1862-3-4, built the Cariboo Road, one of the finest pieces of engineering work the world has yet seen. The road was eighteen feet wide and four hundred and eighty-five miles in length. The cost of construction was but \$2,000 a mile.

To aid in maintaining order and in surveying and opening up the colony, the Imperial government, in 1858, sent out a detachment of the Royal Engineers under Colonel Moody, who was to be commander of the troops in the colony and also Chief Commissioner of Lands and Works. He was also directed to select a site for the capital of British Columbia. He chose the spot on which the city of New Westminster now stands. It remained the capital until 1868. The Royal Engineers were disbanded in 1863. All the officers returned to England, but the greater number of the men cast in their lot with the colony.

The maintenance of law and order in the mining camps called forth the utmost energy of Douglas. He was called upon to settle many disputes between the miners and the Indians and, at least on one occasion, prevented a very serious Indian outbreak. In his efforts he had the staunch support of Matthew Bailie Begbie, the Chief-Justice of the colony. "Begbie had less regard for red tape than most Chief-Justices. Like Douglas, he first maintained law and order and then looked up to see if he had any authority for it. No man ever did more

for a mining camp than Sir Matthew Begbie. He stood for the rights of the poorest miner. In private life he was fond of music, art, literature; but in public life he was autocratic as a czar and sternly righteous as a prophet. He was a vigilance committee in himself through sheer force of his personality. Crime did not



SIR MATTHEW BEGBIE

flourish where Begbie went. Chinaman or Indian could be as sure of justice as the richest miner in Cariboo. From hating and fearing him, the camp came almost to worship him."

Sir Matthew continued to hold the office of Chief-Justice of British Columbia until his death on June 11th, 1894, in his seventy-fifth year.

A dispute, known as the San Juan Boundary Dispute, arose in 1859 between Great Britain and the United States. The

British claimed that the channel referred to in the Oregon Treaty was the Rosario Strait; the Americans claimed that it was the Haro Strait. Between these two lay the San Juan Archipelago. An American force was landed on San Juan in 1859. Immediately British war vessels were sent to the island, and a clash seemed imminent. Ultimately, a joint occupation was arranged, and a British force equal to the American was stationed in the disputed territory. By the Washington Treaty of 1871, the question was referred for settlement to the German emperor. In 1872, his decision was given in favour of the United States, and the British force was withdrawn.

Although Vancouver Island had had representative

government for some time, a similar privilege had not been granted to British Columbia. In 1863, however, Governor Douglas was instructed by the Imperial government to form a Legislative Council. This body was but partially representative. It was composed of fifteen members, of whom ten were government officials



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE SAN JUAN DISPUTE

and magistrates, and five were elected by the people. In the same year Douglas received from the king the honour of knighthood.

Just before the retirement of Douglas, the Imperial government, at the request of British Columbia, decided

to appoint separate governors for the two colonies. Douglas's term of office as governor of Vancouver Island expired in 1863 and as governor of British Columbia in 1864. He was succeeded by Arthur Kennedy as governor of the former and by Frederick Seymour as governor of the latter. After his retirement from the governorships, Douglas spent a year in foreign travel, returning to Victoria, where he lived quietly until his death on August 1st, 1877.

The Colonies United.—The complete separation of the two Pacific colonies was of short duration. It had hardly come into effect before an agitation commenced on Vancouver Island for a union. The mainland strongly opposed this movement, but it found favour with the Colonial Office, and the two colonies were united on November 17th, 1866. Though the union was much against the wishes of British Columbia, it was plainly in the best interests of the province on the Pacific. Governor Seymour became governor of the united colonies, thereafter known as the Colony of British Columbia. The Legislative Assembly of Vancouver Island ceased to exist, but representatives of the Island were given seats in the Legislative Council, the membership of which was thus increased to twenty-two.

Almost immediately the question of the location of the capital arose. In the session of 1867, the first after the union, the Legislative Council recommended that Victoria be selected. The governor, however, took no action. In the following session, which, like that of 1867 was held in New Westminster, the Legislative Council again voted in favour of Victoria. Accordingly, by a Proclamation dated May 25th, 1868, the governor named Victoria as the capital of British Columbia.

In 1867, union with the newly-formed Dominion of

Canada, which then included only Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, began to be discussed. Nothing in the nature of a practical step could be taken, however, owing to the unorganized territory east of the Rockies being under the control of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1869, this barrier was removed by the purchase of the Hudson Bay Territory by the Dominion of Canada, and the road lay open to Confederation. In the same year Governor Seymour died. His successor, Anthony Musgrave, was specially instructed by the Colonial Office to bring about the union of British Columbia with the Dominion.

In 1870, the Legislative Council debated the question at great length, and a proposed basis of union was drawn up. Delegates were sent from British Columbia to Ottawa to arrange for the admission of the Colony on these terms. They succeeded in arranging Terms of Union, which differed somewhat from those approved by the Legislative Council. To give the people a chance to decide the question of union, the constitution of the Legislative Council was again altered. It was to consist of nine elected and six appointed members—thus for the first time giving to the people the majority of members in the Council. In January, 1871, the Legislative Council, thus composed, unanimously accepted the Terms of Union; the Parliament of Canada accepted them in the following April by a majority of eighteen votes in the House of Commons and seventeen votes in the Senate; and on July 20th, 1871, British Columbia ceased to be a colony and became one of the provinces of the Dominion of Canada.

The principal terms of union were that Canada should assume the debts of British Columbia and pay interest on the difference between that debt and the debts of the

Maritime Provinces, which were agreed to be \$27.77 per head of the population; that Canada should pay an annual subsidy of \$35,000, and eighty cents per head until the population should reach four hundred thousand, when the grant would remain fixed; that Canada should assume and pay the salaries of the Lieutenant-Governor and the judges, and support the customs, inland revenue, postal, fisheries, militia, and other similar services; that British Columbia should be entitled to three representatives in the Senate and six in the House of Commons; that Canada should guarantee for ten years the interest on \$100,000 towards the cost of a graving dock at Esquimalt; that Canada should assume the management of Indian affairs in the province, and should pursue a liberal policy therein; and that Canada should agree to the introduction of representative government in the province. But beyond all these and as the chief incentive to the union, Canada undertook to commence within two years from the union and to complete within ten years from the same date a line of railway connecting the seaboard of British Columbia with the existing eastern railway system. On her part British Columbia agreed to hand over to the Dominion government, in aid of the proposed railway, a strip of land not to exceed twenty miles in width on each side of the line of rail throughout its entire length in the province, receiving in return therefor the sum of one hundred thousand dollars yearly.

CHAPTER IV

A PROVINCE OF THE DOMINION

Governments and Leaders.—By the Constitution Act of 1871, passed by the Legislative Council of the Colony of British Columbia, the Council itself was abolished, its place being taken by a Legislative Assembly of twenty-five members, thirteen to be elected by the people of the mainland and twelve by the people of Vancouver Island. The Act itself provided that it should be held for the assent of the queen and that it should come into force



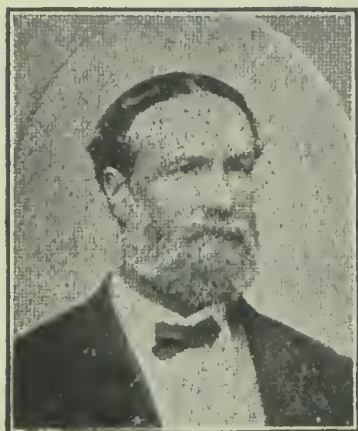
ANTHONY MUSGRAVE

on a date to be fixed by Her Majesty. By proclamation, Governor Musgrave set the date as July 19th, 1871, one day before the entry of the colony into Confederation. The governor at once resigned, and Mr. Joseph W. Trutch, a pioneer of the colony, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of the new province. He called upon Mr. John Foster McCreight, who had been Attorney-

General under Musgrave, to form a government. The elections to the Legislative Assembly were held during the latter part of 1871, the newly-elected members being called together at Victoria in their first session on February 15th, 1872.

The McCreight government was defeated during the second session of 1872. From that date until 1903, no fewer than thirteen Premiers held office, an average of

less than two and a half years for each administration.* Party lines were ignored in provincial contests, the retention of office by the government of the day being dependent largely upon the personal popularity of the Premier. Election contests were frequent and were



JOHN F. MCCREIGHT

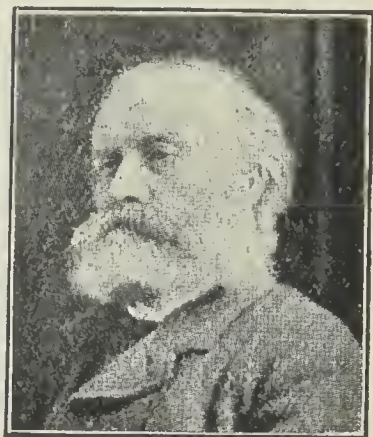
fought with extreme bitterness, the same feeling of bitterness frequently showing itself in the Assembly itself. In 1903, however, Mr. Richard McBride, when called upon to form a government, made up his mind to appeal to the people on party lines. Accordingly, he included in his Cabinet none but Conservatives. His stand was endorsed by the people at the next election, although with but a very narrow majority.

Mr. McBride, afterwards Sir Richard, remained in office until 1915, when he retired to become Agent-General for British Columbia at London. His successor was Mr. W. J. Bowser, the Attorney-General. Mr. Bowser's government, however, suffered a severe defeat in the election of 1916, thus forcing his resignation. He was succeeded by the leader of the opposition, Mr. H. C. Brewster. On Mr. Brewster's death in 1918, Mr. John Oliver, the Minister of Railways, became Premier.

The Canadian Pacific Railway.—The surveys for the location of the railway to connect the Pacific coast with eastern Canada were commenced without delay; but it

* The thirteen Premiers were as follows: Amor de Cosmos (1872-74); G. A. Walkem (1874-76, 1878-82); A. C. Elliot (1876-78); Robert Beaven (1882-83); William Smithe (1883-87); A. E. B. Davie (1887-89); John Robson (1889-92); Theodore Davie (1892-95); J. H. Turner (1895-98); C. A. Semlin (1898-1900); Joseph Martin (1900); James Dunsmuir (1900-1902); E. G. Prior (1902-1903).

soon became evident that the undertaking was vastly more difficult than had been supposed. The two years within which the actual work of construction should have been commenced passed by, but the surveys were not complete enough to enable the engineers to select the line of the railway. Indeed, it may be truthfully said that the surveys served only to show even more clearly the immense difficulties of the work. Over three and a half million dollars were spent in the preliminary surveys for the railway, and over a thousand men were employed. In charge of the work was Mr. Sandford Fleming, the famous Canadian engineer. But the people of British Columbia became impatient. They cried out for the commencement of construction. A feeling of dissatisfaction over the failure to begin work within the two years sprang up. Canada was blamed on all sides for the delay.



SIR SANDFORD FLEMING

Mr. J. W. Howey says: "It is difficult for us to-day, as it was difficult for the people of Canada then, to realize how much the railway meant to British Columbia. We must remember that the total white population was under ten thousand, of whom the great majority would be directly benefited by the enormous expenditure which actual construction would involve: those in business, in trade, and in agriculture would feel the stimulus instantly, while all who had invested in real estate would be enriched by the increased value of their property. Thus every person had a direct material interest. But those who had worked for the union, who wished to see a united Canada, also fully

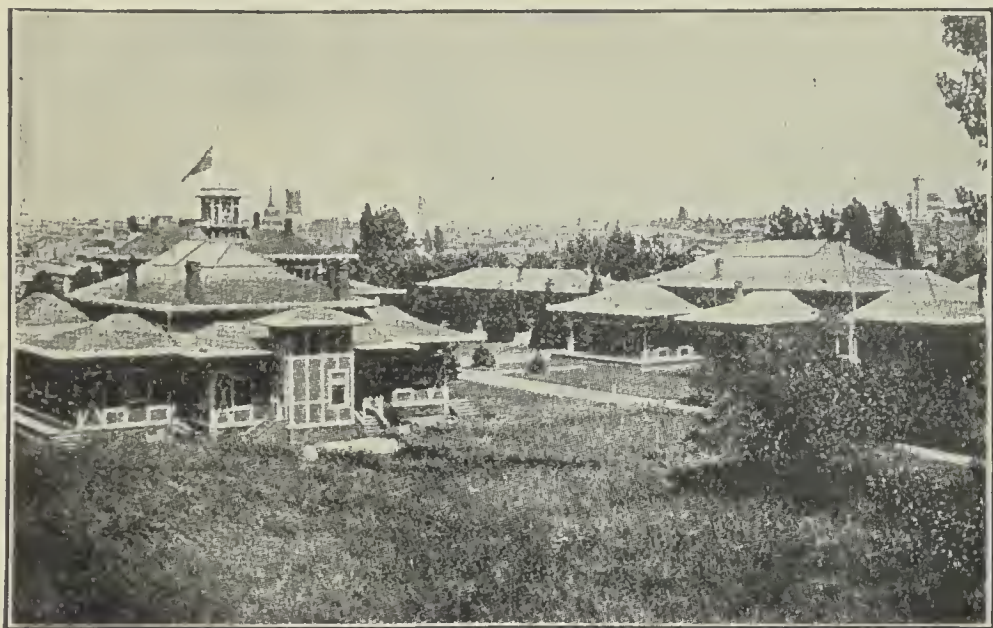
realized that no real union could exist without the railways that would open markets and lead to an interchange of products. The people of British Columbia literally hungered for the early, vigorous, and continued construction of the railway."

When, in 1873, a formal protest was made by the Legislative Assembly against the delay in constructing the railway, Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, who had just succeeded Sir John A. Macdonald as Premier of Canada, replied that, as it was a physical impossibility to carry out the Terms of Union, it was his intention to seek a modification of those Terms. The Assembly refused even to consider any modifications. Early in 1874, Mr. Mackenzie sent Mr. J. D. Edgar to British Columbia to consult with the provincial government on the railway question. Definite proposals were made by Edgar, but to these the provincial Cabinet would not consent. The negotiations came to nothing.

In June, 1874, the provincial government determined to lay its grievance before the queen. Lord Carnarvon, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, endeavoured to arrange the difficulty, and, in November of the same year, after having heard both sides of the controversy, he gave his decision. This is known as the "Carnarvon Terms." These Terms ordered that a railway should be built from Esquimalt to Nanaimo; that the surveys on the mainland should be energetically carried on; that a waggon road and telegraph line should be at once constructed on the mainland; that at least two million dollars a year should be expended on railway construction, as soon as the surveys were far enough advanced to warrant work being undertaken; and that the railway should be completed to Lake Superior, to connect with the lines of railway in eastern Canada, by December, 1890.

The decision of Lord Carnarvon was not favourably received in the province, but nevertheless it was accepted as a settlement of the question.

The surveys went on, but still construction was not commenced. Again the province began to complain of broken promises. The people became greatly dissatisfied, and the feeling of enmity against eastern Canada gained ground. Secession from Confederation was openly threat-



OLD LEGISLATIVE BUILDINGS, VICTORIA

ened. Lord Dufferin, then the Governor-General, made a visit to the province in 1876, to attempt to allay these bitter feelings and to quench with his persuasive eloquence the smouldering of secession. His visit did much in the way of inducing the people to wait patiently.

At length the work of surveying was sufficiently advanced to allow definite plans to be made. A number of alternative routes were suggested and examined, and, finally, in July, 1878, that by way of the Fraser Valley to Burrard Inlet was selected. At the same time tenders

were called for by the Dominion government for the construction of one hundred and twenty-five miles of the road. In spite of this, however, so sorely had the patience of the people been tried, in August of the same year a strong resolution in favour of secession from the Dominion was carried in the Legislative Assembly by a vote of fourteen to nine. The resolution was forwarded to Ottawa, reaching there in the midst of the general elections. The result of the elections did much to pacify



THE COMPLETION OF THE C.P.R.

Donald A. Smith (Lord Strathcona) driving the last spike at
Craigellachie

the people of the province, as Mr. Mackenzie was overwhelmingly defeated, and Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been largely responsible for the entry of British Columbia into Confederation, was returned to power. The province was about to enter upon its heritage. From this time little more was heard in

British Columbia of the Pacific Railway as a political question.

The government of Sir John A. Macdonald succeeded in inducing a syndicate of wealthy Montrealers to undertake the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway from the Atlantic to the Pacific. So energetically was the work pushed forward that it was completed to Port Moody on Burrard Inlet in 1886. Very soon afterwards, by an arrangement with the provincial government, the

railway was extended to Coal Harbour. There the city of Vancouver, one of the most notable examples of great and continuous growth in Canada, sprang into existence as if by magic. In 1886, its site was forest land covered with huge Douglas firs. By 1891, a busy city of nearly 14,000 marked the terminal point of the Canadian Pacific Railway. To-day, less than forty years after its foundation, Vancouver ranks fourth among the cities of Canada, with a population exceeding 170,000.

The Canadian Pacific Railway opened up the southern part of British Columbia, making its natural resources accessible and bringing in settlers in large numbers to utilize them. Branch lines were built into the immense coal basins and rich mineral areas of the Kootenay and Boundary districts, and the mineral production of the province increased by leaps and bounds. Farm lands were cleared in the fertile valleys. Lumbering became an important industry, and sawmills dotted the country. The fisheries were developed, until to-day the men employed in this work alone number twice as many as all the white people in the province only fifty years ago.

The Settlement Act, 1883.—The question of a railway on Vancouver Island was for a time a source of trouble between the province and the Dominion. Though its construction was part of the Carnarvon Terms, 1874, yet after the Senate had rejected the bill which the government introduced in 1875 to authorize its being built, no further steps were taken to that end. In 1883, this and a number of other vexed and long-standing questions were arranged by the Settlement Act. The Dominion agreed to contribute \$750,000 towards the cost of a railway from Esquimalt to Nanaimo; to repay the province the money expended on the graving dock at Esquimalt, and to take over, complete, and operate the

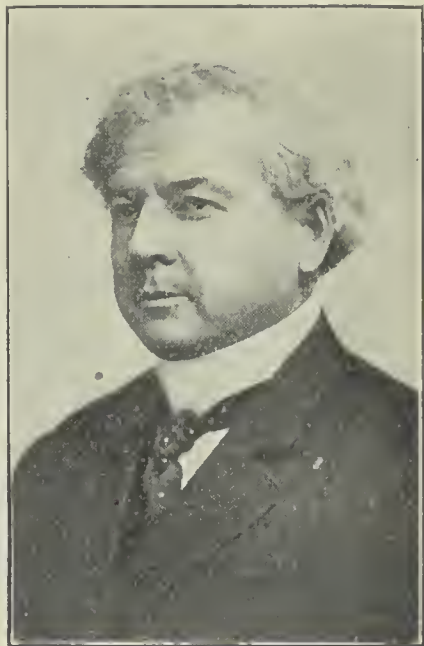
dock as a Dominion work. The provincial government agreed to transfer to the Dominion three million five hundred thousand acres of land in the Peace River country as compensation for lands sold by the province from the forty-mile belt granted under the terms of Union in aid of the Pacific Railway. With the arrangement of these matters all disputed questions were ended.

Shortly afterwards, work was begun on the graving dock at Esquimalt and quickly completed. A local company, the Esquimalt and Nanaimo Railway Company, undertook to construct the Island railway in return for the Dominion subsidy of \$750,000 and a land grant of about two million acres. This railway was purchased by the Canadian Pacific in 1910.

Better Terms.—About the year 1900, British Columbia began to press upon the Canadian government the necessity for revising the Terms of Union, so as to provide better for the financial support of the province. Year by year the government was face to face with a deficit, the expenditure far exceeding the revenue. The British Columbia government did not claim that the Terms of Union had been violated by the Dominion, but they pointed out that conditions had arisen that could not have been foreseen at the time of the union, and that the province had a moral right to an increased grant. A careful analysis of the public accounts showed that Canada had received from British Columbia in thirty years more than \$13,000,000 more than had been expended in the province. Stress was laid on the great expense of carrying on government in and developing the natural resources of a mountainous province.

In 1906, the claim of British Columbia was presented by the then Premier, Mr. McBride, to a gathering of the provincial Premiers at Ottawa. The justice of the claim

was admitted by the Premiers, and Mr. McBride applied to the Dominion for the appointment of a Commission to settle the amount to be paid. The Dominion government, however, refused to grant a Commission, but instead referred the question to the provincial Premiers, who decided that the province should be paid, in full settlement of all claims, the sum of one million dollars in annual payments of one hundred thousand dollars. To this the Dominion agreed, and an amendment to the British North America Act was prepared, in order to give sanction to the proposal. Mr. McBride, when the amendment came before the Imperial Parliament, succeeded in having all reference to a final settlement expunged from the bill. The full amount was paid to the province by the Dominion government.

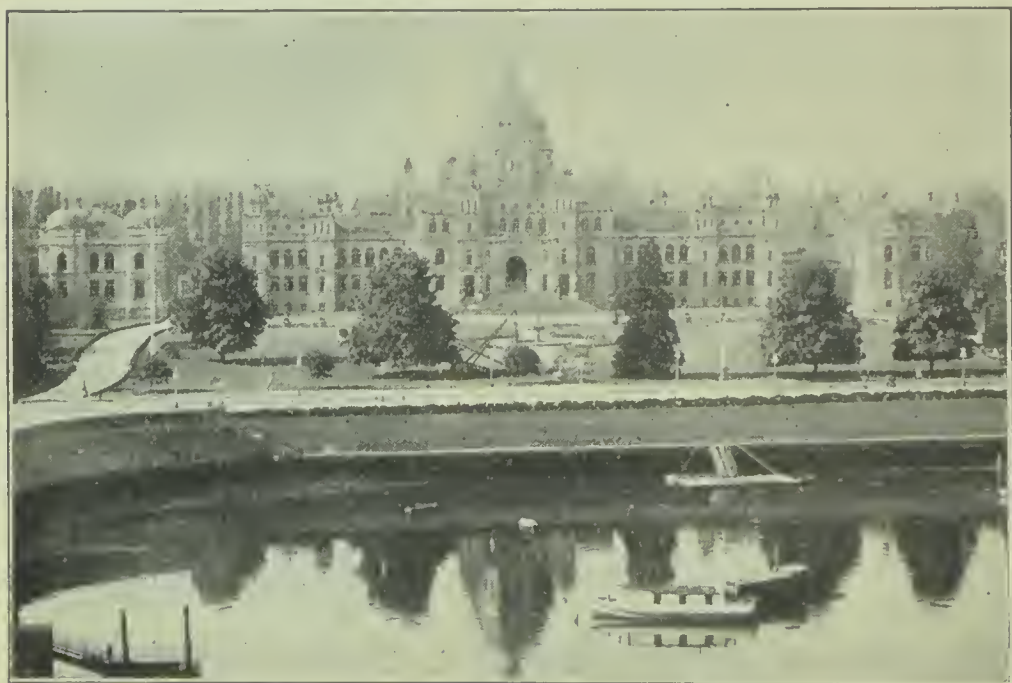


SIR RICHARD MCBRIDE

Oriental Immigration.—Towards the beginning of the latter half of the nineteenth century many thousands of Chinese landed in California, attracted there by the discovery of gold. In the mining camps they were employed principally as laundrymen and cooks, and later, throughout the coast districts, as railway labourers. With the crowd of California miners that flocked to the mainland of British Columbia during the gold-rush came many hundreds of Chinese. Their presence was not seriously objected to, as they did not enter into competition with the whites. They were content to take up claims abandoned by the white miners, and were

of great service in doing the rough work of the camps. In fact, at the first Dominion election in British Columbia, they were allowed to vote. However, when the Canadian Pacific Railway was being rapidly pushed forward, many thousands of them were brought from China to work on construction, thus seriously interfering with the employment of white labour.

For many years the Assembly of British Columbia had passed annual resolutions against the unrestricted immi-



THE LEGISLATIVE BUILDINGS AT VICTORIA

gration of Chinese, but nothing was actually done until 1884. In that year the Assembly passed three bills, later assented to by the Lieutenant-Governor, dealing with the acquiring of Crown lands by Chinamen, the regulation of the Chinese population, and the prevention of their immigration into the province. The Dominion government immediately disallowed the Act dealing with Chinese immigration, but the Premier, Sir John A.

Macdonald, promised that he would appoint a Commission to investigate the question. The result of the report of this Commission was that, in 1885, a tax of fifty dollars was placed on each Chinaman entering Canada. In 1899, the head-tax was raised to one hundred dollars, and, in 1902, to five hundred dollars; but Chinamen still continue to arrive in the province.

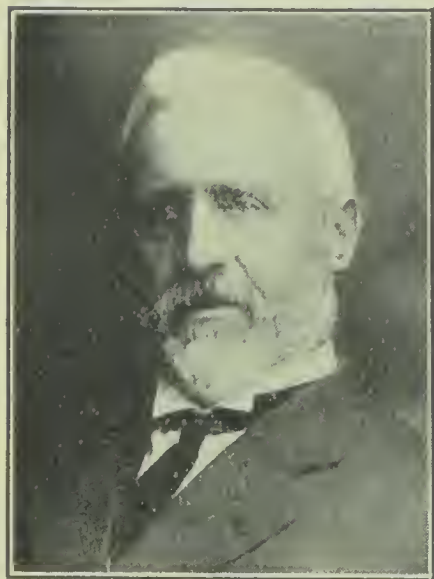
It was not until 1896 that Japanese in any large numbers began to make their homes in British Columbia. From that time they continued to arrive in a steady stream, as many as ten thousand having landed in a single year. Not only the working classes but also the public generally began to be seriously alarmed, as the new arrivals threatened to invade every department of industry. The Dominion government, urged by the provincial authorities, took up the question with Japan, with the result that the government of that country agreed to permit only a very limited number to emigrate to Canada each year.

The coming of immigrants from among the native races of India caused for a time considerable agitation and some trouble. The difficulty, however was quickly settled by government regulation.

In spite of the head-tax on the Chinese and the strict regulation of Japanese and Indian immigration, the question is one which is constantly before the Assembly and the people. In November, 1921, the Assembly unanimously passed a resolution asking the Dominion government to prohibit entirely the immigration of Asiatics, "keeping in view the wishes of the people of British Columbia that the province be preserved for people of the European race."

Social Progress.—British Columbia has kept well abreast of the times and is in many respects the most

progressive of all the provinces of Canada. As we have seen, there have been since 1871 many governments and many leaders, but all have united in placing on the statute books of the province much wise and sane legislation. Although considerable attention had been paid in the early colonial days to education, it was not until the first session of the Assembly after the union that any



JOHN OLIVER

attempt was made to establish a free public school system. At that session the public schools were established on practically the same basis that they stand to-day. For some years the entire cost of education in the province was paid by the government, but later school funds were raised by local taxation, aided by grants from the province. The first high-school was opened in Victoria in 1876. Every child in British Columbia is now assured of a liberal

education—common school, high school, and university—within the bounds of his own province.

In 1896, the high schools of Victoria and Vancouver became affiliated with McGill University of Montreal. Until 1906, university work was carried on by these two schools, when the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning in British Columbia was incorporated. The Royal Institution at once took over the university work of the high schools and extended it so as to include both arts and science teaching. In 1907, an Act of the Assembly set apart over two million acres of land as an endowment for the University of British Columbia.

Three years later, a site was selected at Point Grey, near Vancouver, and two hundred acres of government land at that place were transferred to the university. The first president was appointed in 1912. The Great War interfered with the erection of permanent buildings at Point Grey, but the work has been successfully carried on up to the present in temporary buildings in the city of Vancouver.

Material Progress.—Until the end of the last century, nearly all of northern British Columbia was practically unknown. In 1897, news of the discovery of gold in the Klondike brought a great rush of miners into northern British Columbia and the Yukon Territory. As a result, regular steamship communication began between the southern ports of the province and the northern coast; new roads were projected and built; telegraph lines were extended. The Atlin and Bennet regions in the northern part of British Columbia were thus opened up.

In 1909, an agreement was entered into between the Canadian Northern Railway and the province, by which the former agreed to extend their road through British Columbia to Vancouver and to build a hundred miles of railway on Vancouver Island in return for a guarantee of their bonds to the extent of \$35,000 a mile on five hundred miles of track laid on the mainland and one hundred miles on Vancouver Island. The railway, now a part of the Canadian National system, enters the province through the Yellowhead Pass and follows the valleys of the Thompson and Fraser Rivers to Vancouver. Three years later, an agreement was entered into with the Pacific Great Eastern Railway Company to construct a line from the city of Vancouver to Fort George, there to connect with the main line of the Grand Trunk Pacific. Later, the company failed to carry out its promises, and the govern-

ment was compelled to take over and to operate the road. In 1914, the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, now a part of the Canadian National system, was completed to its Pacific terminus at Prince Rupert. This line, with its branches, serves the central part of British Columbia. It has opened up more than two million acres of good agricultural land, as well as several rich mining districts. The Canadian Northern Pacific, entering from the United States, has many miles of track in the southern part of this province.

In 1778, British Columbia was a blank upon the maps. A century later, its white population would not suffice to fill even one small city. But, in the last fifty years, the province has advanced with giant strides. Its population had increased fifty-fold. Its mountains, its valleys, its forests, and the sea along its coast produce yearly wealth far beyond the wildest dreams of the old fur companies who so long held the land as their domain. From its ports are sent cargoes to Asia, to Australia, to Europe, and to other ports on the American continent. Improved transportation, enlarged trade, the great development of natural resources, and good government have led to enviable progress and prosperity.

